

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA  
ARCHÆOLOGICAL SURVEY OF INDIA  
ARCHÆOLOGICAL  
LIBRARY

---

ACCESSION NO. 44151

CALL No. D25.35/Sto.



Bibliographical  
Control and Service

*Books by the same author*

STUDENTS' MANUAL OF BIBLIOGRAPHY (ED.)  
(Allen and Unwin)

# Bibliographical Control and Service

---

44.51

ROY STOKES

025.33

Sto

A GRAFTON BOOK



ANDRE DEUTSCH

FIRST PUBLISHED 1965 BY  
ANDRE DEUTSCH LIMITED  
105 GREAT RUSSELL STREET  
LONDON WC1  
COPYRIGHT © 1965 BY ROY STOKES  
ALL RIGHTS RESERVED  
PRINTED IN GREAT BRITAIN BY  
EBENEZER BAYLIS AND SON LTD  
THE TRINITY PRESS, WORCESTER, AND LONDON

LIBRARY, NEW YORK  
Acc. No. 44151  
Date 17.3.1966  
Call No. 025.35/sto

For  
JEFF,  
JANE and CATHERINE  
who live with it  
constantly

Received from Mrs. J. B. Book House, New Bedford, Mass. 1872





## Contents

1	General bibliographical control	13
2	Aids to stock building	48
3	Bibliographical service	55
4	Types of materials	65
5	Contemporary production methods	91



## Foreword

This book is written with certain definite principles in mind.

First, it is designed primarily to cover the syllabus of Paper Four of the Part One syllabus of the Library Association. Because of this, it is arranged in the order of that syllabus even when a different approach might seem more logical. It can also serve as a general outline of approach to the problems of bibliographical control for students other than librarians. Many students today, including some following comparatively advanced courses, are inadequately equipped with the basic bibliographical approach to their subjects. Anything which helps to direct them along these paths is a step in the right direction.

Second, a student must realize at the outset that only by making direct use of the main bibliographical and reference tools for himself can he hope to come to any real appreciation of the problems. Consequently, this book is designed deliberately to be incomplete when used in isolation. It is a guide to material but it must be used in conjunction with the material. Walford and Winchell have provided the two main surveys of general reference materials. Reference numbers to these publications are therefore given in preference to giving the information in this guide itself.

On the other hand, a student will soon come to realize that, in the majority of cases, one particular reference tool

or bibliography is not the only one which is of importance in that particular field. The arrangement of this guide is consequently by *types* of material, and the actual titles of works which are given should be regarded simply as *examples* of these types. They are certainly not necessarily the only ones and, in the eyes of many librarians with specialized interests, not always the most important ones. A student's main duty is to find his own examples to supplement those given here.

Books which are quoted in the text are given enough detail for identification. A student will, it is hoped, frequently find that he needs to consult other catalogues and bibliographies in order to establish all the details he requires. From the very outset of his career a student must expect to hear works referred to by names of authors, editors, titles, abbreviations and such like. He must also realize that it will be assumed that he is able to establish the facts by consulting the correct sources. With the intention that the student should be compelled to consult such tools for himself when using this guide, this method has been adopted here. I have always been impressed by the attitude which I heard expressed by one educationalist some years ago. He said that his duty as a parent was not to be able to answer his children's questions, but to provide sufficient books around the house so that they could look for them for themselves. Similarly I believe that the duty of a tutor, or of a guide of this nature, is more to pose questions than to give answers.

I make no apology for the fact that, even in a short book, a number of topics are raised on more than one occasion. They are approached in slightly different circumstances and some of them, such as the nature of a bibliography for example, are fundamental to the subject.

A student should regard his introduction to bibliographical research as an invitation to an endless game of investigation and detection. A. E. Housman said, 'In Germany at Easter time they hide coloured eggs about the house and the garden that the children may amuse themselves in hunting after them and finding them. It is to some such game of hide-and-seek that we are invited by that power which planted in us the desire to find out what is concealed, and stored the universe with hidden things that we might delight ourselves in discovering them. And the pleasure of discovery differs from other pleasures in this, that it is shadowed by no fear of satiety on the one hand or of frustration on the other.' Librarianship, it may be inferred, is just a rather sophisticated game of hide-and-seek.

This book owes everything to eighteen years of Loughborough students who have created it. To them all, and the members of the staff, especially James Ollé, I am immensely grateful. The faults, nevertheless, are all of my own obstinate creation.



## General Bibliographical Control

### *Meaning of term*

The phrase, 'bibliographical control', is one which is of fairly recent origin and is being used increasingly to describe one of the central problems of modern librarianship. As each year goes by the amount of printed material which is issued increases at an alarming rate. At the same time new inventions add to the variety of physical means which are capable of storing the increasing amount of information: gramophones, tape recorders, films, film-strips, computers. This has created a situation in which the searcher is far more likely to be convinced that the answer which he is seeking does, in fact, exist somewhere than that it can be found.

A librarian is, and needs to be, constantly aware of this dilemma. He will know that large modern libraries exist with stocks of volumes which can be numbered in millions. Given collections of this size it will seem not unreasonable to suggest that an answer to a problem might well be found somewhere among them. Yet experience will soon convince him that the methods which we have used hitherto in our profession, and very generally are still using today, are not adequate to the task.

The position was put with trenchant clarity by Dr Vannevar Bush in a paper entitled 'For man to know' published in *The Atlantic* of August 1955. The paper was drawn from an address he delivered before the American

Philosophical Society. Dr Bush wrote, 'Civilization generally, science in particular, proceeds because man can store, transmit, and consult the record; because the experience of one generation is available to the next; because an individual can share the knowledge of his neighbour. There has been great progress in transmission, in communication, with telephone, radio, facsimile transmission, television; but this has thus far touched scholarly affairs only lightly. There is progress too in the storing of the record, with microfilm and new methods of printing. But our methods of consulting the record are archaic and essentially unchanged. The library, as we know it, cannot cope with the task before it. Science may become bogged down in its own product, inhibited like a colony of bacteria by its own exudations. There are thousands of journals in physics alone. One of these publishes five thousand pages a year, mathematical, abstruse, difficult. Who can be familiar with it all, and who can find in the great mass in storage the grain of wheat needed for his next step? The pile is mounting daily, science is becoming polyglot, duplication is rife; synthesis, crossing many fields, becomes increasingly difficult and more and more necessary. In such a morass, how are the great syntheses of the future to be brought to light?'

This is a reasoned statement of the problem. What Dr Bush said here of journals in physics is equally true of scores of other subjects and, in the years which have passed since Dr Bush spoke, the situation has grown ever more difficult. Many people can content themselves with bewailing the problem, but the librarian has to accept it fairly and squarely as his responsibility. The situation, so far as the librarian is concerned, is a simple one to state. On the one hand is all the recorded material of the world, in every shape and form, in every language. Contained



herein is the answer to every question which man has asked and answered throughout human history. On the other hand is the vast mass of all the peoples of the world who are seeking information, inspiration, and recreation through the media of the recorded word. The librarian alone stands between the two piles with the object of making the union between the two a really satisfactory one.

Although we are naturally concerned with the problem in our own time and the complexity of it, it is no new phenomenon and undoubtedly it seemed large and important to those who were concerned with it in previous times. '... of making many books there is no end; and much study is a weariness of the flesh', wrote the Preacher, and from early times men have been concerned to plot some kind of path through the maze. Sir Stephen Gaselee always stressed the important role of the librarians of the Alexandrian library as our earliest bibliographers, and they were certainly concerned to make some record or catalogue of the collection of books which this library had amassed. The same instinct is found in a number of men throughout the early medieval period but the title of the 'father of bibliography' has been so often given to Conrad Gesner that his claims should not be overlooked. In 1543 he published his *Bibliotheca Universalis* in which he set out to provide a list of the world's printed books. He applied a limitation in that he included only books in Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, presumably because books in other more ephemeral languages would soon be forgotten. Over the centuries other projects of a similar nature were undertaken, each one conditioned by the particular circumstances of its own time. Those of the 18th century were frequently very detailed and many began to concentrate on rarity under the influence of the great book collectors of the period. The

19th century saw the emergence of larger contemporary listings and, in the wake of the new attitudes towards librarianship in this century, printed catalogues of our great libraries began to make their appearance. Each age, with its own especial interests and problems, added to the store of printed and published bibliographical material. By the end of the 19th century it became painfully obvious to many interested people that the situation was getting out of hand and that a completely new approach was necessary. It was even more obvious because the 19th century had added so significantly to the proliferation of periodicals and these in themselves were creating vast new problems. During the 20th century, while new approaches have been made to some aspects of the problem, the complications have increased because new and extremely important media of communication have been forthcoming, with the result that the picture is constantly widening and developing. This is why it became quite logical for Vannevar Bush in 1952 to speak as he did about the size of the problem and the importance of some kind of solution. For those who wish to find specific pieces of material or specific pieces of information and for the librarian whose task it is to guide the reader through the maze, some kind of control of all this bibliographical material is of prime concern.

There is not one solution to all this, at least not one whose outlines can be discerned at the present moment. Different problems will need different remedies. The clearest way to approach the matter at the outset is to look at the various kinds of bibliographical tools in order to see what the current developments are and what remedies have been suggested in the past. A useful exercise for a student is to be able to apply all this to a problem of his

own choice. If bibliographical control is to have any real significance, it means not simply that there is an adequate recording of all the different forms of material, but that the machine as a whole is geared so that some part of it can produce answers to specific queries. If a student is interested in 18th-century music, or astronomy, or fishing he should approach each bibliographical tool to see to what extent it is useful to him in establishing complete control over the material related to his interest. This is, after all, the final aim.

A complete scheme of bibliographical control should therefore consist of certain broad categories, each with a particular part to play in the whole plan. The relative importance of the various categories will vary according to the object of the search and they are therefore set out here in order of developing intention and not in any attempt at an order of importance.

### *Bibliographies of bibliographies*

These are the widest of all in scope since they set out to record not the books on the subjects themselves but the bibliographies of the subject. Until they are compiled on a much vaster plan than has ever been possible up to the present they must naturally be extremely selective. Although it is to be expected that publications of one particular country or in one particular language predominate in any one bibliographical compilation, it is unusual to find a bibliography of bibliographies restricted by either of these considerations. Some subjects must be covered which are naturally more fully documented in one language than another and that language may not be that of the compiler or the country of origin.

Some of the earliest important works in this category were the three great 19th-century compilations. Although these have been largely superseded for current practical purposes they should not be dismissed as being of historical interest only. It is only comparatively rarely that any bibliography can be regarded as having been rendered entirely useless by the publication of another.

The three concerned were:

PETZOLDT, Julius. *Bibliotheca bibliographica*. 1866. Annotated entries arranged in classified order, author index. Ahead of its time in that it included bibliographies published in periodicals. Praised by Besterman as 'one of the finest systematic bibliographies ever compiled'.  
(Winchell A 20).

VALLEE, L. *Bibliographie des bibliographies*. 2 volumes. 1883-1887. Primarily an author list - but with subject groupings.

STEIN, Henri. *Manuel de bibliographie générale: bibliotheca bibliographica nova*. 1897.  
(Winchell A 6).

The earliest 20th century one of importance was:

COURTNEY, William P. *Register of national bibliography: with selection of the chief bibliographical books and articles printed in other countries*. 3 volumes. 1905-1912.  
(Walford 011/016:016) (Winchell A 15).

Of more importance in modern use are the three main compilations in English with pride of place going to the most detailed one available.

BESTERMAN, Theodore. A world bibliography of bibliographies and of bibliographical calendars, abstracts, digests and the like. First published 1939-40. 4th large edition (recording 117,000 volumes), 5 volumes. 1965.

(Walford 011/016:016) (Winchell A 11).

The second is a smaller work but its general arrangement and coverage makes it particularly suitable for the use of students. Although far from complete, as all such works must be, it is detailed enough to give to a beginner a sense of the variety of bibliographical tools. Since its compiler has spent virtually the whole of his professional career as a reference librarian it is, additionally, an essentially practical work. This is:

COLLISON, Robert L. Bibliographies: subject and national. 2nd edition. 1962.

(Walford 011/016:016).

The greatest drawback to the effectiveness of such works is the fact that they must already be out of date on the day of publication and become steadily more so. A partial solution seems to lie in some kind of current and cumulative bibliography even though the senses boggle at the magnitude of the exercise. The chief one in this field is the American publication:

BIBLIOGRAPHIC INDEX Published by H. W. Wilson Co. (New York). Cumulates into long-term volumes and includes books, parts of books, pamphlets, periodical articles, etc.

(Walford 011/016:016) (Winchell A 13).

What the student needs to understand most clearly at this stage is that these bibliographies must be looked at as

carefully and as critically as possible. They are examples of an important category of bibliographical tool and, although they may not be of outstanding usefulness in a search within any one particular subject area, they are most revealing as to the function of this type of work. Also, since the chief respect in which one bibliography can differ from another one of similar scope is in the arrangement of the entries and the kind of detail which is given in an entry, the greater the amount of attention which can be devoted to this problem, the greater will be the understanding of the difficulties involved.

### *Universal bibliographies*

Ever since Gesner made the first really important attempt at providing a bibliography which included books on all subjects, provided only that they were printed in the major languages, similar ideals have motivated many bibliographers. A universal bibliography can only adequately be described as one in which the basis of selection is not by subject, language, or chronological division. These are the three main principles of selection in other bibliographies. On the other hand a universal bibliography, in what could probably well be argued is the strictly correct use of the term, would in fact include all books, wherever produced, in whatever language, of whatever period. It would be a listing of everything which is known to have existed. While it may not, for all time, be right to say that such an idea is an impossibility, it certainly has not proved to be practicable to date, nor does it seem likely in the comparatively near future. On the other hand, although the imagination tends to baulk somewhat at the thought of any such thing, this does not render it

impossible of achievement. Many things are now being accepted with equanimity which would have seemed incredible a few decades ago. Because of this it is important to understand the different kinds of universal bibliography which have been compiled so far and to see what have been the chief processes for the selection of materials.

Some, and by no means the least important, have been those which are off-shoots of the book trade itself and were not designed for quite the same purposes as many of the other bibliographical tools. The great annual book-fairs of Frankfurt and Leipzig, which were truly international when judged over the whole period of their existence, issued catalogues of the books which were displayed. Because of the early date from which these catalogues run and the length of time during which they were issued, they are valuable contemporary records over a period of time during which such evidence is thin. These *Messkataloges* of Frankfurt (from 1564 to 1749) and for Leipzig (from 1595 to 1860) were collected together and indexed by:

SCHWETSCHKE, Gustav. *Codex nundinarius Germaniae literatae bisecularis*. 1850-1897.

The 18th century produced two bibliographies which are still of great importance when considering the development of this kind of tool.

MAITTAIRE, M. *Annales typographici* (covers up to 1664). 5 volumes. 1719-1741. (Supplemented for period 1549-1599, by M. Denis. 2 volumes. 1789.) (Winchell A 59).

GEORGI, Gottleig. *Allgemeines europaisches bücherlexikon*. 5 parts and 3 supplements.



5 parts (covering 1501-1739). 1742-1753.

3 supplements (covering 1739-1757). 1750-1758.

Arranged alphabetically by author - giving author,

short-title, place, publisher, date, and price.

New visions of what bibliographical tools of this nature could accomplish were also apparent in the same century, largely under the impetus of the new zeal in book-collecting occasioned by the growth of private library building at this time. Descriptions paid greater attention to bibliographical features of the books and, although by modern standards they demonstrated only an elementary technique, they were markedly different from many of the earlier ones, which had been whole-heartedly annalistic. Since France has always been one of the most book-conscious of nations, and since private book collecting there has for so long been an integral part of cultural life, it is not surprising that some of the leading examples in this field are French in origin, although enjoying a world wide usage. One of the earliest was:

BURE, G. F. de. *Bibliographie instructive*. 7 volumes. 1763-1768. Classified list.

But the most widely known, and still one of the most effective of universal bibliographies, having due regard to the date when it was first issued, and when it was last revised, is:

BRUNET, Jacques-Charles. *Manuel du libraire et de l'amateur de livres, contenant un nouveau dictionnaire bibliographique . . . et une table en forme de catalogue raisonné*. First published 1810.

(Winchell A 22).



Brunet is supplemented by material in:

GRASSE, Johann Georg Theodor. Trésor de livres rares et précieux. 7 volumes. 1859-1869.  
(Winchell A 25).

*Printed catalogues of libraries*

Another important source of material on a basis of selection similar to that in the universal bibliographies can be found in the printed catalogues of libraries. The great libraries of the world have collections which are the embodiment of all that a really first-class universal bibliography stands for. Therefore, granted an outstanding collection and granted a good catalogue readily available, here are all the advantages of a good bibliography with the additional advantage of a 'location list' at the same time. The national libraries of the world must, naturally, be expected to provide some of the main material in this field and such proves to be the case. Collections in national libraries, although they will be most strongly representative of their own country's productions, will also be strong in materials outside that range. In spite of the common basis to all such collections the variations will be vast and important and there can be no case of printed catalogues of great libraries covering more than a fractional percentage of common ground. A student should look at examples of national library catalogues in order to appreciate the breadth and the depth of their collections and also the variety of ways in which they have approached the enormous problem of catalogue compilation. In this country the complete catalogue of the national library is still, at the moment of writing, the one issued at the end of the last century.

BRITISH MUSEUM: Department of printed books.  
General catalogue of printed books. 95 volumes (up  
to 1880) 1881-1900.

Supplement 13 volumes (1880-1900) 1900-1905.  
(Winchell A 32).

The new edition of the Catalogue began publication in 1931, but proceeded very slowly. By 1954 only 51 volumes had been published covering up to DEZ. At this stage the decision was taken to speed up production by using a photographic reprint of the main manuscript corrected copy in the British Museum itself. This new policy took effect in 1959 with the issue of volume 52 and publication has proceeded steadily ever since. In this way it is hoped to complete the publication in about 250-300 volumes in 5 or 6 years.

Of equal importance with the main author catalogue is the subject catalogue.

BRITISH MUSEUM: Department of printed books.  
Subject index of the modern works added to the  
library, 1881-1900. Edited by G. K. Fortescue. 3  
volumes. 1902-1903.

(Walford 015 (410) ) (Winchell A 34).

The subject index, to which supplements covering five-yearly periods are still issued and which is still familiarly known by the name of its original editor 'Fortescue', does not include novels, poems or plays and there has been no attempt to take it back any earlier than 1880. Mention should, however, be made of another subject index which, while not an official publication of the British Museum, was based very largely upon its collections and which gives some measure of guidance for the earlier years.

PEDDIE, Robert A. Subject index of books published before 1880. 4 volumes. 1933-48.  
(Walford 015 (410) ) (Winchell A 27).

Although the Library of Congress of the United States is not, in the strict sense of the word, a national library it operates as one in most respects. Its catalogue was originally entitled:

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS, Washington. Catalogue of books represented by Library of Congress printed cards issued to July 31, 1942. 167 volumes. 1942-46. 42 supplementary volumes covering 1942-47 were issued in 1948.

Cumulative supplements to this were issued by the Library of Congress for 1947 onwards and subsequently the catalogue extended its scope and became the 'National Union Catalog: a cumulative author list, representing Library of Congress printed cards and titles reported by other American libraries'. This makes it an extremely good, possibly the best, example of a continuing catalogue.

The subject catalogue is ordered on similar lines; since 1950 the Library of Congress has issued 'The Library of Congress Catalogue. Books: subjects' in quarterly cumulating parts. Plans have been made, but not as yet carried out, to bring the subject catalogue into line with the author catalogue in its current form as a National Union Catalogue.

(Walford 015 (73) ) (Winchell A 29, A 30, A 31).

Another great national library which has, so far, not embarked on any programme of speeding up the production of its catalogue or of designing one on completely new lines is the Bibliothèque Nationale of France.

Its catalogue, a great one, has been over sixty years in publication and is still incomplete. Its rate of progress – and this is a matter of great concern when considering catalogues of this importance – can be judged by looking at the details of the most recent volumes to appear.

BIBLIOTHEQUE NATIONALE, Paris. Catalogue général des livres imprimés: auteurs. 1897– in progress.

(Walford 015 (44) ) (Winchell A 35).

The first sixty years of publication of this catalogue saw the appearance of just over 180 volumes covering up to the letter T. Each volume was correct for its coverage up to the date of issue and this causes unevenness over the whole catalogue. It is important for the student to study these national library catalogues and to judge how adequately they perform the functions required of a bibliographical tool of this magnitude. Compared with the efforts of the British Museum and the Library of Congress to revise the publication plans of their catalogues, the Bibliothèque Nationale's proposals are much more modest. The remaining volumes to be published will cover accessions up to 1959 and it is planned in addition to issue five-year supplementary volumes from 1960.

Concentration on the catalogues of the great national libraries must not result in forgetting that there are other non-specialist libraries whose stock equally covers the same ground as a national library. Although the concentration will not be so marked, these collections cannot be ignored. If a good printed catalogue exists, then a highly important new bibliographical tool may result. Such a library in this country is the London Library.

The London Library has issued both an author cata-

logue and a subject index and to both of these large scale supplementary volumes have been published. For the student it provides an admirable example of a distinguished collection of books matched by a printed catalogue of the highest reputation. The student should also take this opportunity of learning something of the history of this remarkable library.

(Walford 017 (420) ) (Winchell A 47).

### *Book trade records and catalogues*

Any listing, therefore, in which the selection is not made on one of the usual bases for the limitation of a bibliography, can be regarded as a universal bibliography of greater or lesser scope. Many examples other than those quoted can easily be found, but one important category is frequently overlooked, both from the angle of theoretical consideration and also from the actual availability of the material. These are the records of auction room sales and the catalogues of the great antiquarian booksellers.

Over any long period of time a vast quantity of important books pass through the auction rooms and especially so in this country, for London is still the most important rare book selling centre in the world. Any record of books which are sold on the market, therefore, constitutes an important bibliographical tool and one which has the advantage of a long history and a wide coverage.

The chief items in this category are three in number:

#### AMERICAN BOOK PRICES CURRENT

(Walford 018.3) (Winchell A 87).

#### BOOK AUCTION RECORDS

(Walford 018.3) (Winchell A 92).

## BOOK PRICES CURRENT

(Walford 018.3) (Winchell A 93).

These are, naturally, all compiled on a highly selective basis, but behind them stand ranged two very much more formidable tools. The auction rooms themselves publish sale catalogues which will normally list all the items available for disposal and copies can occasionally be obtained in which the sale prices have been added. At the other end, as it were, of this organization of sales are the booksellers, who are generally the most extensive buyers from the sale rooms. Here the books are listed again in the catalogues of the great antiquarian booksellers with an amount of detail and a devotion to accuracy which make them basic bibliographical tools and, incidentally, frequently highly prized collector's items in their own right.

It would be invidious to start selecting names from among those of the great booksellers and exclusion here of the many dozens of great names argues nothing more than a lack of space. To appreciate the range a student has only to browse among the historic collection of catalogues which have been emerging from the firm of Bernard Quaritch ever since 1847. At the moment of writing the current number is 850 and thousands of important books have been faithfully recorded in these throughout their history. The great amount of significant bibliographical detail which such catalogues can provide, and the impeccable nature of the standard of cataloguing, can be judged when the student turns to the famous Catalogues No. 81 and 83 of W. H. Robinson Ltd. Equally he should search for examples of book catalogues issued by those booksellers who work within a particular subject field. Here no better example could be found than the catalogues of E. P.

Goldschmidt which combine a fine subject coverage of medieval studies with excellent cataloguing.

The student should be able to locate many examples of book catalogues of this kind and if examples can be found in his own locality then it will be possible for him to study these against the background of the bookseller's stock. It is impossible to overstress how important the study of first class bookshops, their stocks and catalogues can be to a student in this field.

### *National bibliographies*

Following the great variety of works which can be regarded as making up the background of universal bibliographies, the next most general in scope are the national bibliographies. It is not always easy to define exactly what is meant by a national bibliography, but the core of the idea lies in the fact that ideally it covers the books published in that particular country, irrespective of the language in which they are printed and also the books printed in the language, irrespective of where they are published. Obviously this must be modified in practice to a considerable degree but the basic idea is contained in this definition.

A full national bibliography, consequently, is likely to be contained within a number of separate bibliographical tools each with its own special approach. If the student takes his own country for the purpose of following out this plan he will the more easily understand the problems. Examples are therefore now given for British bibliography. It is suggested that the student should, first of all, try to give a general chronological coverage of publications and then to discover what gaps there are in such coverage.



He will, at the same time, discover that, while one particular period may be well covered from the standpoint of an author listing, it is not covered from the viewpoint of historical, chronological development. Alternatively, it may be adequately covered from those angles but not from the subject approach. It is only in this way that a student can appreciate, from the outset, just how many facets are important in the analysis of bibliographical material and how insufficiently most periods of British bibliography are at present covered.

This is the stage at which consideration has to be given to the fact that some bibliographies attempt to be comprehensive and some selective. Ideally, the use of the term 'bibliography' should imply an attempt at comprehensiveness. It should emphasize the fact that a bibliography, in the correct sense of the term, is an uncritical listing of all the books and materials within the coverage of the bibliography. It can well be argued that the only way in which the range of a bibliography can be limited is by some uncritical aspect. In other words, if the 18th century is too wide an area for one bibliography then it is better to narrow the chronological coverage rather than to make a 'selective' listing for the whole period. Indeed, Fredson Bowers has argued very logically that if a listing attempts anything less than comprehensive coverage, then it should not be accorded the title of 'bibliography' at all. It can be called a 'selective list', 'reading list', 'graded list', etc., with absolutely no loss in usefulness. This is far from being a purely theoretical worry, because whereas the bibliographer in his own right is capable of producing a bibliography *because* it is uncritical, a subject specialist is essential if the listing is to be critical, based on an analysis or understanding of the subject matter.



With these qualifications in mind a basic list of bibliographies covering British publications can be constructed.

The first and most general one which needs to be studied is a 'bibliography' which is, in fact, highly selective, and its strength lies in this very fact. Nothing which has just been said should be taken as implying any diminution of usefulness in a selective list, often the reverse is true. The qualifications are made in order to stress the importance of understanding on what basis the work has been compiled and, if selective, investigating fully the credentials of those who have made the selection. The only objection which might be raised in this instance is the purely theoretical one as to whether the word "bibliography" is properly used in the title.

BATESON, F. W. Cambridge bibliography of English literature. 1941.

(Walford 820:016) (Winchell R 258).

Bibliographies of British printing have had a long history and many of the early ones still have more than a passing, or purely historical, interest. One of the earliest was John Bale's famous *Illustrium majoris Britanniae scriptorum summariū* which first appeared in 1548 and then again in 1557 in a greatly enlarged printing, becoming virtually a completely new work. It was the first important British bibliography, founded partly on Leland and partly on Bale's own viewing of Augustinian and Carmelite houses before the dissolution. Early bibliographies such as this are of interest because they deal with the material from a contemporary or near contemporary angle, but naturally there must be many gaps in those areas where modern research work has made its most substantial achievements.

The main basis, therefore, of most of the foundation

bibliographies of British books is the bibliographical work of the last half a century. Pride of place must be given to one of the most celebrated of all which covers the earliest period of British printing.

POLLARD, A. W. and REDGRAVE, G. R. Short-title catalogue of books printed in England, Scotland and Ireland and of English books printed abroad, 1475-1640. 1926.

(Walford 015 (410) ) (Winchell A 292).

This is the major achievement of the Bibliographical Society to date and has been one of the most influential bibliographies of this century. Although now nearly forty years old it has stood up to use during that period remarkably well, with its comparatively few faults, and many virtues becoming clearly marked. A new, revised and considerably augmented edition of the S.T.C. has been in preparation for several years and its publication should not now be long delayed. Since the arrangement of the S.T.C. is alphabetically by author and since chronology is a matter of great concern with early printed books, it has also been the intention of the Bibliographical Society, ever since the original date of publication, to produce one day a chronological arrangement of the S.T.C. under the title of *Annals of English Printing*.

The end of the S.T.C. period, as it is now commonly called, is followed by another rather similar tool.

WING, Donald. Short-title catalogue of books printed in England, Scotland, Ireland, Wales and British America and of English books printed in other countries, 1641-1700. 3 volumes. 1945-51.

(Walford 015 (410) ) (Winchell A 302).

Wing is one of the largest bibliographies produced in recent years by one man and, again, its advantages and disadvantages have become very clear. Probably the biggest single drawback to the work is the fact that so many omissions have now been identified in the field which, reputedly, it covers comprehensively.

The arrangement is alphabetical, so that other facets are not revealed, but Paul G. Morrison has compiled indexes to the printers, publishers and booksellers both in the S.T.C. and Wing which have been published by Virginia University and which go some way to redress the balance. These should be seen by a student in order to discover exactly how an index can help to reinforce the aspects of a bibliography.

Both the S.T.C. and Wing are essentially location lists, basing their selection of libraries on a wide and representative basis. In order to utilize fully the wealth of material revealed by such bibliographies, however, more detailed location lists are desirable and a number of these have been compiled. They add to the locations given for a particular geographical area and also list titles not found in the original works. A British example is:

RAMAGE, David, *editor*. A finding list of early English books to 1640 in libraries in the British Isles. (Excluding the National Libraries and the Libraries of Oxford and Cambridge.) 1957.

The period covered by these two bibliographies is up to 1700 and this includes one of the prolific periods of British printing, particularly of material which, although produced for primarily ephemeral purposes, has important historical significance – the period of the Civil War and the Commonwealth. Once again the virtue of a fine catalogue

of an outstanding collection becomes apparent. This material is listed primarily in:

BRITISH MUSEUM: Department of printed books. Catalogue of pamphlets, books, newspapers and manuscripts relating to Civil War, the Commonwealth and Restoration collected by G. Thomason and edited by G. K. Fortescue, 1640-61. 1908.  
(Walford 015 (410) ) (Winchell A 297).

This same period, up to 1700, also produces two bibliographies which are excellent examples of their type. Contemporary records which were produced with very mundane purposes in view but which, when viewed in historical perspective, have a most important part to play.

ARBER, Edward. Term catalogues, 1668-1709, with a number for Easter Term, 1711. 1903-06.  
(Walford 015 (410) ) (Winchell A 296).

These term catalogues are the collections of the lists which were produced by and for the book trade for its own internal purposes of recording the publications issued in each season of the year. Brought together and edited they provide an important, if not entirely accurate, picture of one area of 17th century publishing.

Another part of the same period is covered by:

STATIONERS' COMPANY, London. Transcript of the registers of the company . . . 1554-1640, edited by Edward Arber. 1875-94.  
*continued for* 1641-1708, edited by G. E. B. Eyre, transcribed by H. R. Plomer. 1913-14.  
(Walford 015 (410) ) (Winchell A 291 and A 299).

This publication is of such vital concern to the whole

study of bibliographical control of material published between 1554 and 1708 that the history and peculiar status of the Stationers' Company itself must be known by the student, as well as the particular circumstances which brought the registers of the company into being.

In many areas of bibliographical work the 18th century is at present the most inadequately covered and British bibliography provides no exception to this general rule. The only major bibliography which covers it to any extent is an old one, general in its chronological scope, but which, because of the accident of the date of its publication, did give some real consideration to the 18th century.

WATT, Robert. *Bibliotheca Britannica*, or a general index to British and foreign literature. 1824.

(Walford 015 (410) ) (Winchell A 284).

Once the nineteenth century is reached the situation changes again because of the increase in the number of trade lists of various kinds. The chief of these, once the turn of the century has been reached, are:

ENGLISH CATALOGUE OF BOOKS

(Walford 015 (410) ) (Winchell A 305).

WHITAKER's Cumulative Book List

(Walford 015 (410) ) (Winchell A 307).

Together these constitute the most useful guides to 19th- and 20th-century materials. They also provide examples of bibliographies which have grown out of current trade listings and this has become the mark of many of the most successful of the efforts at providing bibliographical tools.

Of prime importance now is the biggest step of the post-war years in the shape of a national bibliography. It is at

the same time the first positive action taken in this country towards that most desirable of all professional projects, a centralized cataloguing agency.

The development of:

THE BRITISH NATIONAL BIBLIOGRAPHY  
(Walford 015 (410) ) (Winchell A 311).

should be studied in some detail by the student. He should also be thoroughly conversant, through first-hand knowledge, with the different forms in which the B.N.B. is issued, its card service, and its standards of cataloguing and classification. He should also note the more recent developments such as:

THE BRITISH CATALOGUE OF MUSIC  
(Walford 78:016).

The other major tool is one which, although of American origin, covers very many British publications because its range is the English language rather than the place of publication.

THE CUMULATIVE BOOK INDEX  
(Walford 015 (73) ) (Winchell A 154).

Although its regular coverage of British books is not as comprehensive as the others, its particular usefulness lies in the variety of approaches of its headings which are arranged in one alphabetical order. Author, title, subject, illustrator, editor – all these are covered within the one listing. The Wilson subscription basis also ensures that it is within the economic grasp of virtually any library.

As a student creates a pattern of this nature the form of a national bibliography and the variety of its approaches can be seen. A somewhat similar organization can also be

found for many other countries and the suggestion that, by the bringing together of national bibliographies of this nature, a world bibliography would thereby be created comes within the bounds of possibility.

### *Subject fields*

So far the material covered has been of a general bibliographical nature but a student must quickly begin to make acquaintance with some of the main subject fields. An increasing amount of bibliographical work is being done in specific subject fields, and the librarian of the future must expect to be required to attain a high standard of proficiency in certain specializations, in addition to his general background knowledge. The growth of specialized subject libraries during the last generation of librarianship and the inevitable progress towards subject departments in the larger general libraries will make this a certainty.

The student will probably gain only a muddled impression of the scope of subject bibliographical work if he attempts to immerse himself too soon in too narrow a field. Although a fairly narrow specialization may be his ultimate aim in librarianship and although he may be thinking of preparing himself for the acute sectionalism of List C in Part II there are dangers in this procedure at too early a stage. One major pitfall is that some subject areas in List C are so narrow as to exhibit an inadequate range of bibliographical materials in their own right. This would entail searching for them among the next more inclusive subject field and it can be a long and difficult search and one which is liable to confuse the beginner. At the outset a student is advised to look for and to understand the major tools in the three main areas of human knowledge:



- (a) the humanities,
- (b) the social sciences,
- (c) science and technology.

Each of these fields is wide enough and sufficiently well endowed with major bibliographical tools for a student to become aware of the various categories of material, to understand some of the problems of organization and to appreciate the need for more careful planning for the future.

### *Instruments of control*

Throughout the whole of his studies the student must be growing increasingly aware of the size of the whole problem of bibliographical control. Bibliographical tools were created in order to help organize the flow of printed and recorded material. Now the situation has developed to the stage when the bibliographical aids themselves threaten to overwhelm the user.

There is a long and honourable history of attempts by devoted individuals, and some important institutions, to bring about some order in this chaotic wilderness. The student can do no better in seeking to understand this background than to read Kathrine Murra's 'Notes on the development of the concept of a current complete National Bibliography', which was published as an appendix to the *UNESCO-Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey* in 1950. The story is here set out clearly and factually and the pamphlet should be regarded as required reading by all students.

It will then prove fruitful for the student to turn his attention to some of the organizations which are currently providing help and guidance in this field.



*International organizations*

U.N.E.S.C.O.'s main participation in bibliographical affairs can be dated from 1950 and the *Bibliographical Survey* already referred to.

Since the publication of this survey the main contribution of U.N.E.S.C.O. has been in its publishing programme and in its field work throughout the world. A student should look at the handlist of U.N.E.S.C.O. publications and try to see a sample of these; especially, in this present context, those which are bibliographical.

If the student encounters much difficulty in finding some of these publications he should, at least, make certain of seeing U.N.E.S.C.O.'s free *Bulletin on bibliography, documentation and terminology*. This tries to keep pace with the output of new bibliographies throughout the world and is an extremely useful tool. Apart from its general news of U.N.E.S.C.O. activities it is arranged under two main headings of: 'General information, humanistic studies, social sciences' and 'Natural sciences'.

This, however, is only one aspect. There is no lack of previous occasions on which a good example has been set but without any practical follow-up. The U.N.E.S.C.O. pilot projects, seminars and schools throughout the world in the field of librarianship should be noted. There are those who urge constantly that U.N.E.S.C.O.'s contributions to date have been small. This may be so; but it has to be remembered that it is a young organization and that it is still battling against generations of apathy, and of vested interests in illiteracy in some parts of the world.

In this same field a student should pay attention to the *International Federation of Library Associations* (IFLA) and the *International Federation of Documentation* (FID). The two

societies are equally concerned with international standards and both have done something towards easing the problems of international bibliographical control. This control would, assuredly, be more efficient if each country had adequate internal control and it is in this direction that much of the most important work will need to be done. In many parts of the world a not inconsiderable start has already been made on the problem.

### *National bibliographical centres*

Ideally, there should probably be *one* central authority in a country to exercise general control over all the various areas of the recording and supply of information and materials. In an older country it is too much to hope that this could come to pass, but the position can certainly be improved in some smaller or newly-emergent nations. In our own country there is a bewildering complexity of institutions and organizations which are concerned with materials at a national level. The student should consider the inter-relationship of the functions performed by the British Museum, the National Central Library, the National Lending Library for Science and Technology, the National Library for the Blind, the National Film Library, the British National Bibliography, and the many agencies committed to the task of providing bibliographical services. This multiplicity should be contrasted with the somewhat different state of affairs in the United States of America and the co-ordination of some of these functions within the Library of Congress, or the neat arrangements on a smaller scale of the Danish Bibliographic Centre. It is not suggested that one is necessarily better than another, each has evolved within the pattern of librarianship in its

own country. Nevertheless they demonstrate in different ways what can be expected of a centralized bibliographical agency.

### *National libraries*

Whatever may be the particular plan for national bibliographical coverage, a National Library (or, as the in case of the Library of Congress, a library which operates as a national one) is the main central feature. One of the chief recommendations of the U.N.E.S.C.O.-Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey was that there should be a system of legal deposit of books associated with a national library. If this is carried out fully, then, obviously, one of the prime desiderata of national bibliographical control is achieved. At least the material is then currently available and ancillary bibliographical services can be provided which are based on this collection. Even without a system of legal deposit, or during periods when such a system is not very effectively applied, a National Library is likely to accumulate the best general collection of national literature. Around that can be built a substantial body of published, and therefore generally available, tools. A student should compare the varying patterns of publication of the main printed catalogues of the British Museum, the Library of Congress and the Bibliothèque Nationale. These are major catalogues of world famous collections and they give some indication of the strength and the limitations of such tools. A student should then carry on to examine the range of catalogues of the British Museum in more detail. All too often, younger librarians are inclined to speak as if there were *one* printed catalogue of the National Library and so not only overlook the remainder of the catalogues

themselves but also undervalue the Library's contributions to national and international bibliography.

### *Regional schemes*

At a somewhat humbler level work has been done within geographical regions and within particular subject fields to try and tighten up the control. Some of these projects, the majority of which are new since the ending of World War II, are primarily concerned with the acquisition of materials. As has already been said in the case of National Libraries, this is a fundamental task, but it is one which limits the impact of the scheme. Wider benefits may devolve from such organizations upon the profession as a whole as union lists, followed by more elaborate publications, appear. The purpose of such organizations can be best appreciated by studying the published documents of one or two such as LADSIRLAC, SINTO, CICRIS or NANTIS.

In some areas, occasionally under the general auspices of the Regional Bureaux, there are subject specialization schemes at work. While few of them have yet reached the degree of specialization and maturity which seems to have been envisaged for them in the McColvin Report they are a step in the right direction. If, however, we accept the idea that we need a British version and development of the Farmington Plan, then they must be regarded as very much of an embryo nature. If more fully developed, they could undoubtedly prove to be one of the most important advances.

### *Subject groups*

In the meantime we shall probably have to content our-

selves with the impact, and it need not be inconsiderable, of subject groups of various kinds which bring together librarians who are interested in a particular subject field. Occasionally we have them as a section of the Library Association, as with the Medical Section; on other occasions as British branches of international organizations, such as the International Association of Music Libraries; yet others are virtually independent organizations, as the Association of British Theological and Philosophical Libraries (ABTAPL); or again the subject groups of Aslib (Aeronautical, Biological, Transport, etc.). Not all the work of such bodies is either directly or indirectly bibliographical but, until such time as subject specialization becomes more widespread, they provide some much needed stimulation.

#### *Possible solutions or lines of advance*

If we are ever to have any effective measure of control over recorded material several things become necessary.

#### *Acquisitions programmes*

Libraries in general must think in terms of more comprehensive collection building, so that the large general libraries may develop more widely ranging collections and, above all, increase the variety of media which are used.

At the present moment, unfortunately, all too few of our larger general collections are strong enough to support the kind of work which might be reasonably expected to be done in such libraries. A library's holdings may seem to the layman to be impressive when expressed in terms of total number of volumes; it is frequently far less so when looked at from the viewpoint of strength in a limited subject area.

A number of analyses of stock have been made in recent years and one which will bring the point home particularly strongly is Aslib's survey of the resources of our University Libraries in the field of American studies. This was published in the *Journal of documentation* Vol. 14 (1958) (pp. 109-118, 228) and is entitled 'A survey of library resources in the United Kingdom for the teaching of American history and literature in the universities' by B. R. Crick. Nothing which has happened in the years since this survey leads one to think that any significant change has taken place recently.

In the opinion of many observers, no really vital improvement can take place until our subject specialization schemes expand into something akin to a British version of the Farmington Plan. Obviously it is an over-simplification to expect to be able to transfer a complicated system of collection building from one country to another. Nevertheless the Farmington Plan merits detailed consideration by students in order to understand the important principle behind it. One way or another we, in this country, are assuredly in need of more comprehensive and more detailed collections than are at present widely available.

### *Specialist staff*

If, in course of time, any really serious attempt is made to bring about the control of materials in our libraries, then the profession will need to think in more positive terms than hitherto regarding the recruitment and training of specialist staff.

The main basis for any kind of re-appraisal of the needs of staffing lies in the standard of a professional librarian's general education. We are already passing through the

stage in which we are witnessing a steady increase in the number of graduates entering librarianship. The time will come when all education for librarianship in this country, as widely elsewhere, will be post-graduate. The current spread of universities and the consequent increase in the number of graduates should make this a practicable proposition. In the past it has only been our appallingly low national percentage of the population who have been able to enter the universities which has prevented this.

We must attempt to persuade into the profession an increasing number of graduate entrants who have read in scientific and technological fields. Librarianship still exists in the minds of many as a profession concerned primarily with the humanities. We must also encourage the ranks of professional librarians, in spite of official discouragement, to widen the range of languages at their command. These are directions in which we must take very definite action if we hope to provide specialist staff capable of tackling the bibliographical problems ahead.

To this must be added competence in the appropriate subject bibliographical fields. It will not be enough – it never has been enough – to leave the qualifications for work of this nature at the level required by the formal examinations of the Library Association. The subject bibliographical specialist will need to be versed in the compilation of bibliographical apparatus and also have the ability to look critically at published bibliographies and catalogues. If this is the end product, and if specialist staff is of value in our work, then a student should ensure that he is planning to equip himself both with subject qualifications and with subject bibliographical experience to undertake the work.

Given an adequate bookstock and a well qualified staff,



the possibility of a good service exists; always provided that the final step is taken.

*The instruments of retrieval*

A large collection of books and materials is the most heartening sight which can confront a research worker or a librarian. Yet they both know how extremely difficult it is to extract from that collection a specific piece of information. The failure in technical librarianship has been traditional cataloguing when employed to retrieve information. As a simple finding tool for major pieces of material, and for major subject areas, the traditional catalogue has achieved some usefulness. The inadequacy of analytic entries in the majority of catalogues has, however, imposed a severe limitation. In the conditions under which it operates in a modern library the traditional catalogue cannot possibly function unless it is supported by a vast range of specialist bibliographical tools – much more extensive than the holdings of the majority of libraries, more extensive indeed than the present provision of bibliographical tools themselves.

The librarian needs to think of the easy efficiency with which a really first-class index opens up the whole of the subject matter of a book. What he needs to consider is that if every book was really fully indexed and if all those indexes were combined, then this is precisely the kind of 'catalogue' which a librarian needs. The professional mind rejects the idea only so long as it is restricted by the vision of the catalogue as at present generally established. It is the size of the task rather than the desirability of the end product which colours professional thinking. Under the old dispensation this was a reasonable attitude, but we should now be able to look beyond these restrictions.



It is always the material which lurks in unexpected places which causes the difficulty. It is precisely for this kind of item for which many searches have to be conducted and it is here that the traditional catalogue provides the least help. An example has come to hand at the very moment of writing. Some years ago the examiners of the Library Association asked candidates where they could find the menu of an elaborate 19th-century dinner. A similar question could be asked for the inter-War years of the 20th century. Two excellent examples can be found in Chapter 8 of James Laver's autobiography *Museum Piece* (Deutsch, 1963). In how many libraries will this unexpected piece of information be recorded? It is certainly not indexed in the book itself; yet it is precisely the kind of query which could lead to hours of search.

During the past quarter of a century or so gigantic strides have been made in the development of machines for purposes such as this. The spread of punched card methods, and on through all the vast possibilities of computers opens up solutions to the age old problem of librarianship; how to retrieve efficiently the material which has been gathered together. Unless it can be retrieved then the library is not operating at full efficiency. It would probably be a surprisingly small percentage of its total information which any modern library could be certain of retrieving successfully if put to the test. The library slogan of half a century ago was 'A Book misplaced is a book lost'. Now the slogan needs refashioning as 'A piece of information not capable of being found is a useless piece of information'. A library cannot afford to have too high a proportion of its material in a condition of uselessness; yet this was Vannevar Bush's fear and it is doubtful whether it could yet be entirely dispelled in the present situation.

## Aids to Stock Building

There are a number of bibliographical tools which assist the librarian in his task of selecting material for addition to his library. Broadly speaking these can be divided into two main categories.

1. Those tools which assist him with material being currently published, *and*
2. retrospective material.

Within the first category it is useful for the student to be able to think of these tools in the order in which the material itself is being produced. The first person to be concerned with the publication of a book is the publisher. Until the moment when the publisher issues it the book, so far as the librarian is concerned, is virtually non-existent. There is, of course, a very small category of material which is listed as un-published but this is not large enough to be considered at this stage.

The first tools, therefore, at which the student should look are the catalogues of the major publishing houses. Practically every publishing house of any size or importance issues regular catalogues, many of which are extremely detailed. There must, of course, always be recognition of the fact that the publisher is issuing these lists in order to tempt the possible purchaser. Annotations, therefore, should not invariably be regarded as statements of hard and verifiable fact but as a part of the business of

advertising. To this extent they are in a similar category with the 'blurbs' which are published on the dust jackets. Nevertheless, in both these instances, the librarian is provided with some idea of the subject matter of the book and the treatment which can be expected. Students should certainly see as many of these publishers' catalogues as possible and particularly those coming from publishers who have strongly marked subject interests within their lists. At the same time the student with an enquiring mind will begin to widen his awareness of publishers' interests and the standards of their work. Publishers' catalogues exhibit a great variety of competency, both from the viewpoint of supplying accurate information and of presenting it in an attractive form. Some of the general impressions of a publisher which are received from his catalogue will certainly be confirmed by his books.

Following on from this there are the somewhat similar offices carried out by the trade journals. In this category the student should think particularly of those designed primarily for the trade itself which carry advance notices of books. Of these the most important for the student to see are the Spring and Autumn export numbers of 'The Bookseller'. These are compilations which list a good selection of the books to be expected in the coming publishing season.

A somewhat less numerous category but still important are those which are issued by some of the leading booksellers of the country; again, usually giving advance notification of books. The general subject and special subject lists issued by Blackwells of Oxford provide admirable examples of this kind of work.

Next in sequence must come the reviewing journals. These will take matters a step further than the lists issued by the publisher and book selling trade. Here is the first

opportunity for a possible purchaser to see an evaluation of the material but it must never be forgotten that evaluations can vary. A good evaluation is one of the most useful guides the librarian can possibly have, but a bad one is worse than misleading. It is most important that the student should be aware of standards of reviewing practice. There is no easy way around this problem and all that he can hope is that his experience will build up some knowledge of reviewers and reviewing over years. The librarian must be able to assess the respective merits of the reviewer who is closely associated with the subject on which he is reviewing as well as some of the general reviewers who may review anything within the whole field of published material. It is important also to distinguish those journals which allow sufficient room for their reviewers to be able to place a book in the context of other books on the same subject. This, for example, has often been one of the notable features of the front page review in the *Times Literary Supplement*. So far as the librarian is concerned it is the most useful function of a reviewing journal and it is a practice which could well be extended. It is important to note to what extent a reviewer is concerned with a simple statement of the subject matter of the book and the extent to which he is prepared to 'review' rather than simply to 'notice' it.

There is a vital difference between the simple straightforward notes about a book, which may give no more detail than is available in a publisher's list, and a serious review. It is a good and easily tenable hypothesis that the art of reviewing is, in our own time, a languishing one. We have singularly few general periodicals which give adequate reviewing space to current productions. The most important is still the *Times Literary Supplement*, but if the total

number of books reviewed in this journal in a year are added up they cover only a small part of the whole of British publishing. It is important to add to this the general reviewing which is done by weekly periodicals such as the *Listener*, the *Spectator* and the *New Statesman*. These are periodicals which are designed for a reading audience which, by and large, appreciates the really critical treatment of a book and the majority of the reviewers in these journals fulfil that expectation. The other weekly source which is worth consideration are the book reviews in the *Sunday Times*, *Observer* and *Sunday Telegraph*. The value here is not so much the standing of the reviews themselves, because these are very variable indeed, but the wide circulation that newspapers of this category achieve. Reviewing notes are thus carried to a wide variety of potential library users and book buyers.

Compared with earlier periods in our own history or contemporary in some other countries, we do now feel the lack of a number of good critical monthly reviewing periodicals of a general nature. The advantage of these is their ability to devote a greater amount of space and the opportunity given to the reviewer for more mature reflection. This was the form in which much of the best literary criticism of the past appeared, especially in the 19th century, but the last few decades have witnessed a calamitous reduction in their numbers. *Encounter* and *London Magazine* provide current examples of this type of publication but not on the scale of the monthly review in its prime. One of their disadvantages to the librarian is that reviews regularly only cover a relatively small part of each issue. Of greater value, and not sufficiently well known, is the monthly *British Book News*. As this has been published since 1940 it also provides an excellent

conspectus of the major British publications of the past quarter-century.

The other area of reviewing is that devoted to specialist book reviews. These will normally be the reviews which are found in a periodical which is devoted to a particular subject and which includes a quantity of reviews as a part of its survey of the subject field. Such periodicals, which are, at the most frequent, monthly publications and not infrequently quarterly, suffer because of the time lag in publication, but again there is a more serious and more authoritative treatment. They also have an advantage in that, since they are concerned with a narrow subject field, they can cover the publications which are less likely to be noted in the general book reviewing journals. In addition to this they can, and frequently do, review material other than books which is of increasing importance to the librarian. The student should find his own ten or so periodicals, covering a range of subjects, which can be regarded as offering the major reviews in their respective fields.

So far as retrospective material is concerned the situation is quite different. Apart from the material of the fairly recent past reviewing journals are of very little, if any, use. The problem is much more that of knowing of the existence of material rather than its evaluation. Because of this the main body of basic bibliographical tools comes into play again here with, usually, an accent on the subject approach.

The biggest problem in this connection is that the librarian usually needs some kind of screening or selection to have been done before such listings can be of real value to him. On the other hand experience tends to make one fight shy of such things as 'A thousand best books' or 'Standard catalogs' because they are unrelated to any

particular situation of stock-building and breathe an air of complete unreality. Of far greater importance are the subject catalogues of major libraries and subject bibliographies. Of this latter category there is a profusion and the student should study those concerned with a subject field with which he is familiar. Of the former a student should take especial care to study the 'Subject Index to the modern works added to the British Museum Library' and the 'Subject Index of the London Library'. Catalogues such as these, however, have the limitation that their latest issues are usually some long time in arrears and cannot, therefore, help in giving guidance through the less remotely past publications. Also, they have nothing, since such is not their function, in the way of annotation or comment.

A comparative new-comer to this field of guidance is the subject guide. This is an attempt to give to the basic factual material of a subject catalogue additional life and vigour by discussion of the items and putting them into a frame of reference. Examples which a student should see are:

BARON, G. A bibliographical guide to the English educational system. Athlone Press. 3rd edition. 1965.

BOTTLE, R. T. Use of the chemical literature. Butterworth. 1962.

BURSTON, W. H. and GREEN, C.W. Handbook for history teachers. Methuen. 1962.

KIMMANCE, S. K. A guide to the literature of education. University of London Institute of Education. 1961.

A new series of literature guides is now being prepared for the Pergamon Commonwealth and International Library of Science and Technology under the direction of Dr Chandler. Two volumes have now been published.

PEMBERTON, John. How to find out in mathematics. 1963.

BURMAN, C. R. How to find out in chemistry. 1965.

Others which have been announced are by J. Davies on 'Music' and W. S. Haugh on 'Literature'.



### 3

## Bibliographical Service

### *Enquiry techniques*

The initial step in any enquiry is the most important; not only because from it everything else will spring but also because it is so vital in itself. It is impossible to over-emphasize the trouble which needs to be taken to make quite certain that the enquiry is fully understood. This means being quite certain as to three separate but related issues:

(i) exactly what the question itself means. This involves the terminology or the emphasis in a particular context. This seems to be the right moment to stress the fact that there is no reason on earth why a librarian should be afraid to confess his own ignorance on any particular subject. It is far better to do so than to run the risk of working to no avail.

(ii) the level at which the enquirer requires the information. To take an extremely simple example; an enquiry as to the length of the River Shannon may well be met for many enquirers by statements from the more general reference tools of something between 224 and 250 miles, with or without the estuary. This fixes the answer at a measurement which establishes the general length of the river as distinct from other rivers in the British Isles. On the other hand the enquiry could be pitched at the level at

which the enquirer wished to establish the answer more accurately in relation to factors such as, how is a river measured; where does a river end; what constitutes the estuary; when were the measurements given made; is it a river which is changing its course and, therefore presumably, its length; if the question involves comparison with other rivers is there any kind of international agreement covering measurements of this nature or is it subject to national variations similar to 'territorial waters'? In each case the basic question is the same but pitched at a different level of requirement.

There is practically no question which is not capable of being approached at different levels and, consequently, calling for answers which vary in their detail and complexity. A student should take a number of factually 'simple' questions within his own fields of interest and knowledge and see what levels of answer he can establish.

(iii) exactly what steps, if any, the enquirer has already taken to find the answer for himself.

### *Literature searching*

The exact form which a literature search will take depends more than any other factor on the library in which the search is taking place. In the purest theory a search might be expected to begin in the bibliographies of bibliographies in order to establish the main bibliographical tools. These, in their turn, are searched in order to discover the works themselves giving the information. This crucial stage, however can be made to appear deceptively simple because the operations themselves can be thus easily set down. The range of material in relation to any subject is

vast and the tools designed to help are few. The biggest help of all would be to conduct the search in a good collection which was adequately catalogued. Here the practicalities of the problem emerge. The number of libraries in which literature searches can be conducted with any reasonable chance of a successful outcome are all too few. It is pointless to try and measure this on a simple basis of size, which would be profoundly misleading, but we must admit limitation in many of our larger libraries in the range of material which they cover and in many of our specialized collections a poverty in depth. In our national professional policy we have compromised on this issue with schemes of co-operation and interloan but we cannot ignore for ever the basic fact that a great number of our collections (of materials as a whole, not simply books) are inadequate for modern needs.

The second problem is the inadequacy of our catalogues in general for any kind of search procedure in depth. Above all, the general poverty of analytical entries means that only a small percentage of the stock added, and so expensively catalogued, is in fact used at all, except through the gentle art of serendipity. The biggest nightmare which any reference librarian in the country could have is the position in which he would find himself if the combined 'folk-memory' of the staff suddenly vanished and he were forced to rely on the tools which the library has provided for his use.

### *Record of search*

When a search is begun the other great unknown factor, besides the result, is the route and the length of time that the enquiry will take. Many an enquiry, which seemed

deceptively simple at the outset, may not be finished until many unexpected sources have been tapped. Many such will also take a comparatively long time and, in certain circumstances, will have to be passed on from one member of a staff to another. Whenever it is practicable for one member of staff to follow a query through from start to finish, this is highly desirable; but urgency will often make this impossible. For all these reasons it is important that a careful check should be kept of the progress of the enquiry; noting especially works consulted and an accurate reference to the specific piece of evidence produced from each. If then the information finally delivered to the enquirer has to be of a composite nature reference can be made back to the particular sources.

It should be the natural instinct of any librarian to take brief notes as he proceeds on any enquiry other than of the most routine and factual nature. In certain circumstances it may be desirable to file such reports, especially when the information as finally collected depends to some measurable extent on unpublished or unprinted sources or from printed material which is not available in the library. Although no two searches will ever necessarily follow exactly the same route, even though they may end up at the same or similar answers, yet valuable experience can be gained by such case histories. Indeed, the best way of providing the theoretical experience in the training of reference librarians is to let them work, under guidance, on carefully graded literature searches. These results they should then be required to submit to the critical attentions of their fellow students, rather in the manner of the Harvard School of Business Studies. In addition to the number of 'literature guides' which a student is always adjured to read and study during his training programme, he would

also benefit from some published 'case histories'. Such compilations have already proved effective in other fields and the teaching of reference method could benefit considerably in this way. Until anything more substantial appears a student could do no better than work through the 'Reference Libraries' section in the *Library Association Record*, right back to the issue of May 1936 when the series was begun by Herbert Woodbine.

*Preparation of bibliographies, check lists, etc.*

The word 'bibliography' has fallen on evil days, even in its partial sense of a listing of books. To apply the term in its strict sense it must conjure up the picture of a complete and uncritical list. A bibliography of Robert Louis Stevenson, therefore, would include everything written by him, whenever and wherever published and in whatever language. If the term is extended at all to cover writings *about* him and his work then the same all-over inclusiveness must be maintained. From this it follows that the preparation of a bibliography is a large-scale piece of work which must be expected to absorb a considerable length of time.

If something less than the above is required, and this will normally be the case, then the limitation must be imposed by specific factors. Thus a bibliography of Stevenson could be delimited in ways such as the following:

- (a) works published in English,
- (b) works published during his life-time,
- (c) works in their first printings, etc., etc.

In all these cases no argument can exist as to whether a

particular title should be included or not; it is very definitely either in or out.

The problems begin with any listings in which the selection is made on non-verifiable grounds and especially those of merit. It is improper to speak of a 'bibliography' of 'best books' because the principle of selection is on other than bibliographical grounds and calls for more from the compiler than bibliographical expertise. A listing of the hundred best books on 'British History' published in any one year can only be constructed by using the competency of an historian allied to the competency of a bibliographer, whether in one and the same person or not.

This is not to argue that lists of books selected on their merit are not desirable and useful things. They often can be, if extremely well done, but they are all too often marred by a regrettable amateurishness. The point at issue is that they are not 'bibliographies'; they are reading lists, even – although undesirably so called – select bibliographies, but no more.

There should be no useless pedantry over this point, but it is of importance because, understandably, the compiler needs to know what kind of work he is embarking upon before he starts to gather his material. If he has in mind a guided reading list, then he needs to assure himself, and his readers, that he has the necessary competency in the subject field to undertake the work.

### *Form of entry*

When the titles themselves have been selected, a form of entry must be devised. It can hardly be expected that a common method of entry can be devised for listings which can be as diverse as a bibliography of antibiotics or a list

of suggestions for books 'for lazy days on the beach'. What the compiler must be prepared and willing to do, is to forget all about any code of cataloguing rules of which he has ever heard and suit his practice to the particular needs of his list. He can normally accept as an absolute minimum the provision of author, title, publisher and date.

### *Annotations*

A very strong case can be advanced for the inclusion of annotations in many types of lists and, provided the numerous pitfalls in the path of the annotator can be avoided, they are a distinct advantage. They can vary in style as widely as the books and the book lists themselves; from being very severely practical and informative, to being a carefully calculated incentive to the reader to read the book, even when he was previously not conscious of any interest in the subject matter. The former category is well known and examples can be found especially in scholarly and technical fields. The requirements of the latter class are more difficult to meet since they all too often fade away into a vague fatuousness. One of the best examples of the post-war years were the issues of the *Book Guide* issued by Leeds Public Libraries for a number of years. Libraries can be found still treasuring copies of the annual surveys of books issued by Bethnal Green Public Libraries in the 1930s.

### *Arrangement of bibliographies, etc.*

The right arrangement for any bibliography or list is the one in which the material can be most easily located and in which, by the juxtaposition of entries, the list can be made to reveal useful relationships between the entries.

These are problems which the compiler will have to work out for himself and at the outset he should have only two considerations in mind.

(i) That he should not try and evolve a scheme of arrangement until all, or the majority of, his material has been collected. The arrangement should grow out of the material rather than be superimposed upon it. In this particular direction a great deal will depend upon the use for which the list is being compiled.

(ii) That the compiler should not even allow himself to feel tempted to use any of the existing library classification schemes as a basis for arrangement. They were designed for different circumstances and they cannot easily stand the act of transplantation to a new usage. A different situation naturally arises if there is reason to demonstrate a relationship between the listing and a particular library collection, but then the list is as much an adjunct to the catalogue as a separate item. Even so, classified order in the list need not be the basis of arrangement.

Normally the compiler should reckon on having to construct his own arrangement in the light of the material. The student should, as preparation, consider the advantages and disadvantages of some of the main principles of arrangement and also look critically at the arrangement of as many bibliographies as possible.

He will find the main kinds discussed in A. W. Pollard's paper 'The arrangement of bibliographies' and also in Chapter 11 of Esdaile's *A Student's manual of bibliography*.

### *Bulletins*

Students should also find examples of regularly pub-



lished bulletins which can occasionally combine in one publication several of the features outlined above. The main function of a bulletin is to convey the most important professional news regarding the library to its users. The most important feature of any library is its bookstock and selective listings of recent additions are regular features of many bulletins. In addition to this the bulletin can be used to make known older collections, special services or any other feature which merits special attention.

Examples can be found of such publications:

Bodleian Library Record.

British Museum Quarterly.

Bulletin of the New York Public Library.

Liverpool Bulletin.

Manchester Review.

### *Bibliographical citations*

There is not just *one* correct method for making bibliographical references and the only general *rule* which can be pronounced is that all references must be perfectly clear and impeccably accurate, and that there must be consistent use within the one publication. The author may have little choice in this matter since this is a matter which will be frequently laid down by the publisher. Two different examples of this can be seen in the Oxford University Press *Rules for Compositors and Readers* or, as a more specialized instance in the library profession, the directions given to would-be contributors in each issue of *Libri*.

When, however, the exact form will not be laid down by the house-style, the best general practice is to follow the form given by the British Standards Institution in their *Bibliographical references* (B.S. 1629:1950).

Another good recent example which deserves attention is the *Bibliographical Style Manual* of the Dag Hammarskjöld Library published by the United Nations in 1963.

Students should also see the pamphlet by P. G. Burbridge *Notes and references* in the series of 'Cambridge authors' and printers' guides'.

## Types of Materials

One of the difficulties facing a student in trying to identify the main types of material is the fact that his own personal experience may have limited his acquaintance with a particular type of material to one rather narrow area. For example, many people connect the idea of an atlas solely with that of a terrestrial atlas and ignore the wider implications of a more general type of tool. What the student needs to be able to do is to 'define', in the widest possible terms, the overall function of a category of material and then to think of outstanding examples of the type which adequately demonstrate the range. It is much more important for a student to approach the whole question of outstanding reference works by categories than by individual examples. Above all, if the function of a particular class of material is understood in general it is much easier at a later stage to project this same kind of function on to a more limited subject field.

## DICTIONARIES

Basically, a dictionary is nothing more complicated than a list of words accompanied by factual information about the word; its etymology, pronunciation, meaning, etc. Within this very broad definition, however, there is a considerable variety. Within the one language there can be differences of scope and emphasis, there can be dictionaries of dialect,

or special terminology. There can be bi-lingual and multi-lingual dictionaries, and these can exhibit the same variety of emphases. It is also a field in which dictionaries which might, for a variety of purposes, be regarded as superseded can still have a very important historical value.

The student should examine a number of dictionaries of all kinds, not only in order to begin to know them as important individual examples, but also to demonstrate the important differences which exist among contemporary dictionaries which have the same general intention.

The introductory paragraphs to Section M in Winchell on 'Language dictionaries' is worth reading for its suggestions as to the main points to be watched in examining a dictionary for the first time. The student should also see J. R. Hulbert's 'Dictionaries, British and American'.

For English students the most important of all, to be studied in detail, is:

#### OXFORD ENGLISH DICTIONARY

Originally published as 'A new English dictionary on historical principles' in 10 volumes between 1888 and 1928 with a supplementary volume in 1933. A corrected re-issue in 12 volumes with a supplement was published in 1933 under the title of the 'Oxford English Dictionary'. Apart from its general standard of excellence, its feature of special importance is the million and a half quotations which illustrate the use of a word and which record the changes in its usage since 1150. It remains the greatest piece of dictionary compilation in the English language and serves to indicate the varieties of uses which a great dictionary can be made to serve.

(Walford 420-3) (Winchell M 11 and M 12).

This should be compared, in order to show the differing amounts of detail in dictionaries of comparable standing, with the:

SHORTER OXFORD ENGLISH DICTIONARY

The main abridgment of the O.E.D. First published in 1933. 3rd edition 1955.

(Walford 420-3) (Winchell M 13).

and

CONCISE OXFORD DICTIONARY

The smallest member of the main Oxford family of dictionaries. First published in 1911. 5th edition 1964.

(Winchell M 14).

Examples should then be found of other types of which the following is a short sample.

*TECHNICAL AND SPECIAL TERM DICTIONARIES*

VAN NOSTRAND'S Scientific encyclopedia. First published in 1938. 3rd edition 1958.

(Walford 5/6 (032) ) (Winchell N 30).

*DIALECTAL DICTIONARIES*

WRIGHT, Joseph. The English dialect dictionary. 6 volumes. 1898-1905.

(Walford 420-087) (Winchell M 66).

*MONO-LINGUAL DICTIONARIES OF  
FOREIGN LANGUAGES*

GRIMM, The brothers J. and W. Deutsches Wörterbuch. 16 volumes. 1854-1960.

(Walford 430-3) (Winchell M 241).

LITTRÉ, E. Dictionnaire de la langue française. First published 1863-78. New edition in 7 volumes 1956.

(Walford 440-3) (Winchell M 173).

### *BI-LINGUAL DICTIONARIES, ENGLISH-FOREIGN LANGUAGE*

CASELL'S German and English dictionary. First published 1909. Frequent re-issues.

(Walford 430-3 = 20) (Winchell M 248).

MANSION, J. E. Harrap's standard French and English dictionary. 2 volumes. 1934-39, with supplement 1954.

(Walford 440-3 = 20) (Winchell M 180).

### *THESAURUS*

A specialized kind of 'dictionary' which is of outstanding importance to anyone who works with words and, in spite of the wide sale of the most popular one, all too little known. By far the best known one for the English language is:

ROGET, P. M. Thesaurus of English words and phrases.

This book was first published in 1852 and has been frequently reprinted and revised. It is essentially a dictionary of antonyms and synonyms arranged in an order designed to show the relationships of words. A version of it to include American words was first published in 1946 as 'Roget's international thesaurus'. (Walford 420-3. 14) (Winchell M 57).

*MULTI-LINGUAL DICTIONARIES OF SPECIAL TERMS*

SCHLOMANN, A. Illustrated technical dictionaries, in six languages. 17 volumes. 1906-32.  
(Walford 5/6 (038) = 00) (Winchell P 35).

## ENCYCLOPAEDIAS

It is by no means as easy as it might at first appear to draw a clear distinction between a dictionary and an encyclopaedia. As only a very short acquaintance with the problem will make clear, the words themselves are frequently used interchangeably. In general, however, the distinction must be that a dictionary deals with the word as a word, while the encyclopaedia deals with the idea or object for which the name stands. But since some knowledge of the 'thing' is essential towards an understanding of how the word can be used there can naturally be no hard and fast dividing line. As with dictionaries, only a student's own usage and observation can introduce him properly to an understanding of how one encyclopaedia can differ from another in general intention and scope as well as in accuracy. The depth and range of a first class encyclopaedia is such that one can understand the oft-quoted comment of a bookman about to retire to a small cottage in the country, that he would sell all his books and buy a good encyclopaedia. It is important to study the arrangement of an encyclopaedia; the accuracy of its indexing and cross-referencing, the quantity and accuracy of its bibliographical references, whether or not it ascribes articles to their authors, and its methods for keeping the material up to date. These are factors which can be assessed without having to essay the most difficult analysis of all, namely the

quality of the subject matter. Again, the student should read the introduction to Section D of Winchell on 'Encyclopaedias' for its very full analysis of methods for 'testing' an encyclopaedia.

The following are the main encyclopaedias which a student should study in some detail:

**ENCYCLOPAEDIA BRITANNICA** First published in 1768-71; many editions and many printings since. In spite of its name it is now a thoroughly American encyclopaedia. Its method of 'continuous revision' over a ten year period should be examined in detail; especially the fact that, since dates for the revision of an article are not given the whole encyclopaedia has to be regarded as being ten years out of date.

(Walford 030.1 = 20 (3 entries) ) (Winchell D 2).

**CHAMBERS'S ENCYCLOPAEDIA** First published in 1859-68, but issued in a greatly enlarged and revised edition in 1955. Its method of keeping itself up to date is by an annual volume and with new and revised editions at intervals. Its main role now is filling the gap as a British encyclopaedia, since the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* no longer meets the case.

(Walford 030.1 = 20) (Winchell D 4).

**OXFORD JUNIOR ENCYCLOPAEDIA** This should be looked at with two main features in mind. First, how to compile a text which is capable of being understood by younger readers and yet, at the same time, embodies the best of current material and combines it with a mature approach. Second, is its interest from the viewpoint of its arrangement and is one of the very few modern encyclopaedias in English to discard



alphabetical arrangement in preference to broad subject groupings. The encyclopaedia consists of 13 volumes and was published between 1948 and 1956. (Walford 030.1 = 20).

In addition to the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* there is another top-ranking American encyclopaedia which is particularly useful for some of its treatment of specifically American affairs. This is the:

ENCYCLOPEDIA AMERICANA which first appeared in 1903-04. Now subject to continuous revision. Appearing currently in about 30 volumes it is one of the largest encyclopaedias in the English language. (Walford 030.1 = 20) (Winchell D 1).

It is also important for the student to see some of the outstanding examples of foreign language encyclopaedias. In a tool as comprehensive as a general encyclopaedia there is ample opportunity for important variations between one encyclopaedia and another. Above all the particular emphasis occasioned by the country of its origin makes for important additional points of coverage. Three good examples of this category which can be fairly easily found in libraries are:

DER GROSSE BROCKHAUS First published 1796-1808, with the latest (16th) edition published in 12 volumes between 1952 and 1957. Mercifully, has now adopted Roman type. (Walford 030.1 = 30) (Winchell D 32).

LAROUSSE By the use of this term is usually conjured up a picture of a series of encyclopaedias and of dictionaries on encyclopaedic scales. Even though some are now very

old they remain good examples of this kind of work and still of practical use in many fields. The main titles are:

GRAND DICTIONNAIRE UNIVERSEL DU XIX<sup>e</sup>  
SIECLE 17 volumes. 1865-1888.

(Walford 030.1 = 40) (Winchell D 27).

NOUVEAU LAROUSSE ILLUSTRE

8 volumes. 1897-1907.

(Walford 030.1 = 40) (Winchell D 28).

LAROUSSE MENSUEL ILLUSTRE A monthly supplement to the 'Nouveau Larousse' from 1907 onwards.

(Winchell D 30).

LAROUSSE DU XX<sup>e</sup> SIECLE 6 volumes. 1948-50.

(Walford 030.1 = 40) (Winchell D 29).

The latest addition to this remarkable series is the still incomplete:

GRAND LAROUSSE ENCYCLOPEDIQUE

Designed to complete in 10 volumes. It provides another example of a work, described by its publishers as a 'dictionary', and yet conceived on such an encyclopaedic scale as to serve a double purpose.

These should be looked on as members of a family since they are essentially a collection of works.

Among French encyclopaedias mention must also be made of the:

ENCYCLOPEDIE FRANCAISE Designed to be completed in 21 volumes. 1937- in progress. It is one of the comparatively few encyclopaedias published in loose-leaf form.

(Walford 030.1 = 40) (Winchell D 31).

Another extremely important foreign language encyclopaedia is the:

ENCICLOPEDIA ITALIANA 36 volumes. 1929-39. Supplements have been issued since to keep the work up to date. It is especially strong in the humanities and the arts and has a wealth of first-rate photographic illustrations.

(Walford 030.1 = 50) (Winchell D 46).

One of the vitally important factors in the use and, therefore, the success of any encyclopaedia is the question of arrangement. The basic decision is whether it will be series of articles on very broad topics or whether it will comprise a large number of entries under narrow and specific headings. The latter is the treatment in the majority of modern general encyclopaedias but its efficiency depends upon the accuracy and the quantity of its indexing and cross-referencing. On the other hand, an encyclopaedia can approach the problem in a completely different way and still achieve its fundamental purpose; which is still to provide 'a whole circle of knowledge'.

Probably the outstanding example of a rather unorthodox type of arrangement can be found in:

OUR WONDERFUL WORLD 18 volumes. New edition 1963.

This is an encyclopaedic anthology rather than an encyclopaedia and is designed essentially as a browsing book. There is no specified content to a volume, no alphabetical or subject order to the material in a volume. It is arranged in a thematic order with articles linked to each other by association of ideas. Some of the juxtapositioning shows rare brilliance and although the work, if it can legitimately be called

an encyclopaedia at all, is certainly a most unusual one, it merits study for the interest of its arrangement and the quality of the material. Since this work is not widely held in this country, students should see the long review in 'Subscription Books Bulletin' for April 1st 1964.

So far the examples have all been of large general encyclopaedias, but what can be done in general terms for the whole of knowledge can also be done for a more limited subject field. It is, therefore, important for a student to study some of the best known examples of special encyclopaedias. When looking at any of these in detail the overwhelming advantages and disadvantages of an encyclopaedia become readily more and more apparent. On the one hand it is useful to have a general conspectus of knowledge in relation to a given subject. On the other hand it usually produces a large and costly work, with considerable difficulties in keeping it up to date. There are always difficulties regarding the up-to-dateness of the information and this will be of greater concern in relation to some subject areas than others.

BALDWIN, J. M. Dictionary of philosophy and psychology 1901-05.

(Walford 1 (03) ) (Winchell H 11).

CASSELL's Encyclopaedia of Literature 1953.

(Walford 8 (03) ).

GROVE's Dictionary of Music and Musicians 5th edition. 1954.

(Walford 78 (031) ) (Winchell Q 254).

HASTINGS, J. *editor* Encyclopaedia of religion and ethics. 1908-26.

(Walford 2 (03) ) (Winchell K 1).

SELIGMAN, E. R. A. *Encyclopaedia of the Social Services*. 1930-35.

(Walford 3 (03) ) (Winchell L 14).

THORPE'S *Dictionary of applied chemistry*. 4th edition. 1937-56.

(Walford 66 (031) ) (Winchell N 191).

Note should also be taken of the Oxford Companions, which provide encyclopaedic material on a remarkable scale and in surprisingly compact form. Examples of these companions can be found for 'American literature' (Walford 820 (73) (03) ) (Winchell R 194); 'Classical literature' (Walford 87 (03) ) (Winchell R 810); 'English literature' (Walford 820 (03) ) (Winchell R 281); 'Music' (Walford 78 (032) ) (Winchell Q 262); 'The Theatre' (Walford 792 (03) ).

## YEAR BOOKS

This general term covers an amazing complexity of material. Again, looking for a unifying principle behind the books, one can see that the important thing about them is that they cover information or events which need to be kept strictly up to date and an annual edition is required in order to provide this service. In this category examples can be found of both general and highly specialized reference books.

### WHITAKER'S ALMANACK

Published since 1868 and now one of the best known and most useful annuals of general information. Excellently indexed, remarkably up-to-date and meticulously accurate over a wide variety of primarily statistical information. It also provides an excellent

example of the permanent value of a publication which is concerned essentially with current information. It is a good exercise for a student to study a Whitaker of, say, 50 years ago, to see how complete a picture of a past period can be built up by this means. (Walford 31 (100) ) (Winchell L 148).

#### STATESMAN'S YEAR BOOK

Another annual, with a run from 1864. The basic factual information about all countries of the world; constitution, government, size, population, religion, justice, commerce, etc. The permanent value of this publication should be judged in the same manner as Whitaker.

(Walford 31 (100) ) (Winchell L 71).

Others which should be seen and studied are:

DOD'S Parliamentary Companion from 1832.

(Walford 328 (41) (092) ) (Winchell L 269).

WORLD OF LEARNING from 1947.

(Walford 37 (058·7) ) (Winchell L 740).

PATON'S List of Schools and Tutors from 1898.

(Walford 37 (41) (058·7) ).

BROWN'S Nautical Almanac from 1878.

(Walford 527 (058) ).

LE GUIDE MICHELIN from 1905.

(Walford 914·4 (026) ).

WISDEN Cricketer's Almanack from 1864.

(Walford 796·358 (058) ).

MINING YEAR BOOK from 1887.

(Walford 622 (058) ) (Winchell P 215).

MUNICIPAL YEAR BOOK from 1897.  
(Walford 352 (41) (058·7) ).

It would also be an act of grace in students of librarianship if they possessed a more detailed knowledge of the *Year Book* of their own professional association than is common among students. The Library Association *Year Book* has been published since 1892.

## DIRECTORIES

One of the most widely known and most frequently consulted of all year books are the directories – so important that they must be regarded apart from the category as a whole. Broadly speaking a directory is an index, usually of people or institutions within a particular geographical area or within a restricted field of interest.

In order to be aware of the range of directory services, students should see:

HENDERSON, G. P. *editor* Current British directories.  
(Walford 38 (058·7) (410) ).

and:

HENDERSON, G. P. *editor* Reference manual of directories.  
(Walford 38 (058·7): 016).

Students should familiarize themselves with the geographical directories of their own area, where they will be in a better position to judge the imperfections of the works and to appreciate what limitations of coverage the compilers have placed on the range of the publication. Kellys are the best known publishers of local directories in this

country and these provide an excellent basis for this kind of evaluation. But the Post Office Directory of London should be seen by all students, irrespective of their home area.

(Walford 914.21 (058.7) ).

Another important category is that of the trade directories. Examples of these can be found on a local or regional basis, or on a national one.

The most comprehensive British one which gives a very good idea of the scope of this type of work is:

KELLY'S Directory of Merchants, Manufacturers and Shippers.

(Walford 382 (058.7) ).

Also to be noted are:

FEDERATION OF BRITISH INDUSTRIES Register of British manufacturers.

(Walford 382 (058.7) within previous reference).

THOMAS' Register of American manufacturers.  
(Winchell P 54).

#### POST OFFICE TELEPHONE DIRECTORIES

These are in a category on their own and, apart from the specific telephone information which they give, are frequently used as supplements to local general directories. They are especially useful in this respect as they are revised more frequently. There is a series of alphabetical telephone directories arranged in zonal areas covering the whole of Great Britain, Northern Ireland and the Isle of Man, and a series of classified telephone directories covering the more populous areas only.

(Walford 384 (410) ).



Students should also see and check some of the professional directories such as:

CROCKFORD'S Clerical Directory from 1858.  
(Walford 283 (42) (058) ) (Winchell K 116).

MEDICAL DIRECTORY from 1845.  
(Walford 61 (058-7) ) (Winchell P 320).

THE LAW LIST from 1841.  
(Walford 34 (420) (058) ).

## MAPS AND ATLASES

Few categories of general reference material can have a wider impact on all other kinds of material than maps and atlases. It is difficult to over-emphasize the essentially basic nature of the material, and a wide variety of maps, atlases and gazeteers should be studied.

First of all, the historical nature of maps themselves should be appreciated in order to understand over how long a period they provide vital information. This can be accomplished by works such as:

BROWN, Lloyd A. The story of maps. 1951.

CRONE, G. R. Maps and their makers. 1953.  
(Walford 912 (091) ).

SKELTON, R. A. Decorative printed maps of the 15th to 18th centuries. 1952.  
(Walford 912 (091) *note*).

TOOLEY, R. V. Maps and map-makers. 1952.  
(Walford 912 (091) ).

From this aspect the student should pass to some of the major world atlases, such as:

'THE TIMES' Atlas of the World 5 volumes. 1955-1959.

(Walford 912).

ATLAS MIRA 1954. The chief Russian world atlas. (Walford 912).

Of paramount importance to the student for the British Isles are the Ordnance Survey maps. The scale range of these maps is not always realized and the student should first of all see the three guides issued by the Directorate General of the Ordnance Survey for small-scale maps (1951); medium-scale maps (1951) and large-scale maps (1947).

(Walford 912 (410): 016 *note*).

It is also important to appreciate the Ordnance Survey's special range of maps such as historical; geological, land utilization; population density, etc.

Special categories of maps and atlases must not be overlooked, such as navigational charts, of which the Admiralty 'Pilots' (Walford 565.6-052) are probably the easiest examples for nonseafaring librarians to find. Astronomical atlases provide further examples of atlases, other than geographical ones, which are of prime importance. A popular example of this category is:

NORTON, A. P. A star atlas and reference handbook. 1957.

(Walford 523.89).

## PERIODICALS

The frightening thing to a librarian about periodicals is the inconceivable quantity in which they exist, allied to

the undoubted importance of much of the material which they contain. Even the strongly held belief, that not all the articles so published are really making important contributions to knowledge, cannot absolve the librarian from his need for a system of bibliographical control which will enable the wheat to be separated from the chaff. This aspect of bibliographical control can never be overlooked: that a belief in the relative worthlessness of some material does not remove the obligation of organizing the material so that the good can be more readily identified.

It is difficult to the point of impossibility to calculate exactly how many periodicals are being currently published or how many have been issued in times past. When it is remembered that BUCOP lists some 140,000 titles, or that Gregory listed around 120,000, it can be appreciated that the totals are probably very high indeed.

The first requirement, therefore, is for lists of periodicals, so that their very existence can be known. Since this information by itself would provide but bleak comfort to any searcher it is always to be hoped that it may be coupled with a finding or locations list.

In this category come bibliographical tools such as:

BRITISH UNION-CATALOGUE OF PERIODICALS 1955-58. Covers holdings in 441 British libraries. The first supplement has now been published (1962), bringing the original work up-to-date to 1960. (Walford 05:016).

UNION LIST OF SERIALS in libraries of the United States and Canada, edited by W. Gregory. 2nd edition. 1943. with supplements up to 1950. (Walford 05:016) (Winchell E 62).

which is now continued by:

NEW SERIAL TITLES issued monthly by the Library of Congress, Washington, with annual cumulations, 1953- listing holdings in Library of Congress and about 200 or so other American libraries.  
(Walford 05:016).

As an example of the kind of list which does not give locations of runs and holdings but which adds the equally important information of a classified arrangement students should see:

ULRICH's Periodicals directory.  
(Walford 05:016) (Winchell E 14).

Similar lists can be found for specific subject areas of which the best known is:

THE WORLD LIST OF SCIENTIFIC PERIODICALS  
First published 1925-27 and now in its 4th edition.  
(Walford 5/6 (05):016) (Winchell N 25).

This is not an entirely isolated example, however, as there is:

U.N.E.S.C.O. World list of social science periodicals.  
1957.  
(Walford 3 (05):016).

When the problem of knowing what periodicals exist and where they may be found has been surmounted, there follows that of the indexing of the contents.

Many periodicals provide indexes, often of an annual nature, to their own contents and a number of these are of a very high standard. A student should always check the range of indexes available in the periodicals in any subject field in which he is interested. One point of especial interest, and next in importance to considerations of accu-

racy and completeness, is that of long term cumulations. An index to a periodical, however good in itself, can become a frustrating tool if a search has to be conducted over 12 or 20 or more separate issues. One important, although not entirely satisfactory, guide as to whether a periodical publishes its own index and title page is the:

**T.P.I. LIST**, first issued by Stechert Hafner in 1950 and followed since then by enlarged and revised editions.

(Walford 05:016 (410) ).

Apart from such individual indexes to periodicals there are also general indexes to broad categories. It is an area of bibliographical work in which, under present circumstances, very little more than a small percentage of all periodicals can possibly be covered; but, by careful selection of titles, many of the most important ones have been. In this country, the main achievement in the field has been by the Library Association.

Covering the period from 1915 onwards, with a gap for the years 1923-25, the Association published the:

**SUBJECT INDEX TO PERIODICALS** which provided the major indexing tool here for British and selected overseas periodicals.

(Walford 05 (083·8) (41) ) (Winchell E 75).

From 1962 it was decided to cover the then inadequately covered technical material in a new publication, the:

**BRITISH TECHNOLOGY INDEX** which is now published monthly with annual cumulations. The old Subject Index was then abandoned and the coverage completed from 1964 onwards by the creation of the:

**BRITISH HUMANITIES INDEX**

These should be studied in detail as they are now the major British tools and if, in due course, they can be expanded, they will prove to be a major break-through in this important field.

The nearest American counterpart is:

THE READERS' GUIDE TO PERIODICAL LITERATURE published by the H. W. Wilson Co. of New York and covering the period since 1905. This is one of a range of similar publications issued by this company, and they should all be looked at in detail together with the 'service basis' scheme under which they can be purchased.

(Walford 05 (083·8) (41) ) (Winchell E 71).

The 19th century is still an important problem because of the quantity of significant material which appeared in this medium at that time. A new attempt is currently being made to cover it, but at present the best coverage is in:

POOLE, W. F. An index to periodical literature 1802-1881 with supplements covering to 1907. Reprinted in 1938.

(Walford 05 (083·8) (41) ) (Winchell E 69).

All these exclude what would usually be regarded as newspapers but, obviously, the long runs of some of the older newspapers cover a vast amount of important material. By far the best individual index to a British newspaper is:

'THE TIMES' Index to 'The Times' from 1906 onwards.

(Walford 07 (420) (TIM) ) (Winchell E 126).

Covering the years earlier than this is a less detailed, less accurate, publication – but valuable because nothing else exists:

PALMER, S. Index to 'The Times' newspaper from 1790 to 1941.

(Walford 07 (420) (TIM) ) (Winchell E 127).

Another very detailed newspaper index is the:

'NEW YORK TIMES' 'New York Times' Index from 1913 onwards.

(Walford 07 (73) (NEW) (Winchell E 122).

The important factor in the use of such indexes is that they automatically provide some kind of guide to other newspapers and so have a use beyond that for which they were originally compiled.

As was stated at the outset, periodical publications provide increasingly useful sources for material within a number of major fields. A disadvantage to the user in the past, apart from the inadequacy of the bibliographical controls, has been that holdings of runs of some of the more important titles has not been adequate in many libraries – even large research libraries. As new libraries grow up the problem has become steadily more serious because the runs have not been readily available for purchase. This is a problem to which a partial solution can now be seen. Microform publication has been concentrated very largely on these large, expensive, and space-consuming titles with the result that very many important periodicals are now more readily available than ever before. This factor alone should encourage renewed efforts among those who provide bibliographical tools.

Closely akin to the index, by virtue of its function, is the

abstract. Indeed many cases could be quoted in which the exact terminology which should be applied is very difficult to determine. '*The New York Times Index*', just referred to is a case in point. Its index frequently contains so good a synopsis of the articles in question that they can rank as abstracts. The student needs to take several abstracts within subject fields which are of interest in order to assess their usefulness. As with indexing and the use of indexes, much can be learned by having to do a certain amount oneself. Students should practice the making of a simple index and also have some experience of making an abstract. The problems will then become apparent and possible solutions checked against some of the varieties of established services.

Examples of abstracting services which can usefully be studied are:

ABSTRACTS OF WORLD MEDICINE

(Walford 61:016).

BUILDING SCIENCE ABSTRACTS

(Walford 69:016).

CHEMICAL ABSTRACTS

(Walford 66:016).

ECONOMIC ABSTRACTS

(Walford 33:016).

ENGINEERING INDEX

(Walford 62:016).

LIBRARY SCIENCE ABSTRACTS

(Walford 02:016).

NUCLEAR SCIENCE ABSTRACTS

(Walford 539.1:016).



## SCIENCE ABSTRACTS

Section A (Walford 53:016).

Section B (Walford 621:3:016).

Many abstracts which now enjoy separate publication began as a part of a periodical. Many specialist periodicals still provide this service of which students should try to see examples. The easiest and most appropriate of these might be the 'Quarterly documentation survey' in the *Journal of documentation*.

## GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS

It comes as a surprise to many students to find that Her Majesty's Stationery Office is one of the largest publishing organizations in the country. Often the range of material is also unexpected, as is the attractiveness of the appearance of a large percentage of the publications. There are probably three stages through which a student needs to pass in order to appreciate the position.

*First*, many students will share with a large proportion of the general public, an ignorance as to how 'government' works. It is difficult to grasp the full range of its publishing activities without some understanding of the general machinery of government. There are many ways of doing this but one of the most painless is by reading something such as the Pelican volume by Sir Ivor Jennings on 'The Queen's Government'.

*Second*, it is important to grasp what kind of published material emanates from some of the main government departments. Of use here are:

STAVELEY, R. Government information and the research worker. 1952.

(Walford 187:7 (410) ).

of which a new edition is promised shortly and the Sectional Lists issued by individual Government departments.

(Walford 087.1 (410) ).

Students should also see two H.M.S.O. pamphlets: the Stationery Office's own 'Published by H.M.S.O.' and the Treasury's 'Official publications'.

*Third*, once the range is appreciated, the student needs to become aware of the actual amount of material which is issued and also to be able to find his way around among it all. This can be done within the same publication. The *Daily Lists* and *Monthly Lists* which finally culminate in the annual:

#### GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS: CATALOGUE

(Walford 087.7 (410) ).

can provide the key. If a student browses in one of the *Monthly Lists* he will avoid being swamped by too much material and yet become fully aware of the steady torrent of material which flows from H.M.S.O.

In view of the insatiable desire for facts of many enquirers, it should also be remembered that the chief statistical records of the present state of the country may be found among all these publications.

A similar state of affairs can be established for many other countries, and at the increasingly important international level, there are the somewhat similar range of publications of the United Nations Organization. The suggestion here is that a student should turn to page 537 of Walford's *Guide to Reference Material*. Here he will find in the index the entries for the United Nations and for U.N.E.S.C.O. The range and variety becomes apparent and if the student looks up each of the references he will

also gain, more rapidly than in any other way, an appreciation of its importance.

So far the emphasis has been entirely on published materials, but the student must be alert to the fact that some of his enquiries will take him in to the realm of unpublished materials. This is a far more difficult field and his guides are comparatively few. At the outset his major problem is to understand exactly what are the main sources for unpublished materials, and here his best introduction is:

STAVELEY, R. *editor* Guide to unpublished research materials. 1957.  
(Walford 047).

Theses are among the most widely known of the unpublished categories and the documentation of these has been improving steadily of late. It can normally be assumed that each university will have its own listings of theses, and some of these lists are published. However, the most useful general source is:

ASLIB Index to theses accepted for higher degrees in the universities of Great Britain and Ireland.  
(Walford 043 (410): 016).

\*

Somewhere along the course, preferably while it is continuing rather than at the end, the student needs a series of projects which will involve the use of a wide variety of these basic bibliographical tools.

Particularly useful and suitable for a beginner, is one with a biographical basis; to discover and evaluate the main sources which would be used in order to establish a

biography. If an individual can be selected who had a strong attachment to a subject field – or preferably more than one – the search will be agreeably widened. Although many well recognized biographical publications exist, very little analysis of them is necessary in order to discover how minute a section of human lives and accomplishments have been covered. Contrast the total number covered in the *Dictionary of National Biography* (Walford 92 (410) (03) ) with the vast total who have lived in this country, or the total in *Who's Who* (Walford 92 (410) (03) ) with the total who are still living and the minute extent of the coverage will be apparent. The 'top people' maybe; but the vast majority of enquiries are not confined to them.

## Contemporary Production Methods

The most important thing for the student to remember about this part of the syllabus is that he is required to know about current book and periodical production from the viewpoint of the consumer rather than the producer. For example, although the librarian *as* a librarian will never have to make a sheet of paper he will need to know something about the structure of paper in order to be able to store and utilize materials produced on paper with any degree of efficiency. He will have to appreciate the extent to which physical characteristics of the paper in relation to type affect the readability of the volume, and the problems created by the decay and deterioration of paper in storage.

There are three main areas in which the student needs to marshal his material in this field:

(1) the parts of a book, (2) the steps by which a book comes into being, and (3) the various physical components of a book.

### 1. *Parts of a book*

Books can normally be regarded as having a number of features in common, which will have varying bibliographical importance according to the particular history of the book itself. Accordingly, the parts as listed now will not necessarily occur within one particular work but are sufficiently common to make them worthy of comment. They are primarily:

- (a) *Half-title leaf* The leaf which normally precedes the title-leaf, usually bearing a shortened version of the title of the work. It is not infrequently the place where the series-title may be found if the book is a part of a series.
- (b) *Title-leaf* It is more usual to find references to a title-page rather than a title-leaf. It must therefore be borne in mind that the leaf is the unit of the book and consists of two pages. One of these is the *recto* page, which is the right-hand one when looking at the complete opening of the book while the *verso* page, or the *verso* of a leaf, is the one on the reverse. From this it will be seen that it is a physical impossibility, for example, to tear a page out of a book. A leaf can be so treated, but not an individual page.

The title-leaf, therefore, is the leaf normally following the half-title leaf and bears the fullest version of the book's title. In this form it is the 'official' title and takes precedence over all others. The title-leaf will also normally contain the name of the author, the printer's or publisher's imprint and the date of publication. This last consideration is vitally important. There are reasonable grounds for viewing with suspicion any book which does not admit to its date. Similarly one hopes that on the title-leaf, usually of the verso, will be a clear statement of issues, editions and impressions, combining the necessary dates as the major part of the bibliographical apparatus.

- (c) *Contents List* This is one of the major guides within the book itself, as an aid to the reader's finding his way about the text. Other aids which can be taken into account along similar lines are spine-titling, running

titles and the index. The contents list approaches the material of the work under the broad headings of chapters and is arranged so that it will not only give a summary of the book's argument, but also indicate the development of the treatment. A list of illustrations serves the same purpose in that it should not only list the illustrations but also state the actual position of each illustration within the book.

A particular type of contents list, which has an especial value in certain instances, is the analytical contents list which gives a brief summary of the contents of each chapter, usually in the order in which the material is dealt with and serves, therefore, the additional purpose of an abstract.

- (d) *Prefatory material* There is frequently a limited amount of textual matter preceding the main text of the book in which the author, or editor, or publisher takes the opportunity of writing on matters which, while of importance to the reader, are not appropriate to the main body of the book. A publisher will often wish to comment on the relationship of this work to others in a series, an editor may wish to comment upon his editorial principles, an author to make due acknowledgement of his sources and express thanks to those who have helped. It is also a common experience to find that a book will have an introduction by somebody who is not connected with this particular book but has some standing in relation to the subject itself. These various types of prefatory writings are known by a variety of names, but the general pattern is for those which are written by anyone connected with the book to be called 'Preface' or 'Foreword', and those by

someone external to the book itself to be called 'Introduction'.

- (c) *Dedication* Historically, dedications are of great bibliographical value and instances could be quoted in which a dedication is the only place in which the author's name can be discovered. In modern books the dedication is usually of sentimental interest only; 'To my wife who made the index'.

At the end of the book may be found other subsidiaries of which the most important are:

- (f) *Index* The purpose of an index is quite clear, to help the reader find his way to any specific point or piece of information within the text. Apart from the question of the accuracy of the index, which is by far the greatest individual quality, indexes can differ one from another by their arrangement. Although a simple alphabetical arrangement is the most usual, any library student of Dewey is aware of the fact that a 'relative index' also has its uses. What can often be overlooked is that another arrangement can be achieved by series of alphabetical sequences within a sectionalized index. Commonly this can be an Index of Names, Index of Places, Index of Things. This arrangement is obviously not suited to every kind of subject but, when appropriate, can be particularly revealing.
- (g) *Bibliographies* It is common practice for a 'select bibliography' or reading list to be added as a subsidiary to a work. They can vary considerably in scope or selectivity, in arrangement, in detail of the particular entry, according to the kind of work. It would be logical for a reading list attached to a student's text book to differ



fundamentally from that attached to an advanced monograph on the same subject.

Within the body of the book itself are several features which are equally a part of the book bibliographically rather than textually.

- (h) *Headlines and running-titles* These are the titles at the head of the text page giving a summary of the contents of some part of the book. Some running titles repeat the title of the book regularly, and let it be said uselessly, at the head of each page. Chapter headings are also used as running titles and on rather infrequent occasions page headlines can be discovered. It is quite impossible to generalize as to exactly how and when any particular kind of headline should be used since the subject matter itself will suggest arrangement. As a general rule, however, the headline on the verso page is of equal or greater scope than that on the recto page. It would be most uncommon to find an instance where a page headline would be used on the verso with a chapter or title headline on the recto.
- (i) *Shoulder notes* These are used to carry still further the apparatus necessary to help in discovering the whereabouts of any particular section of a work. They are set wholly or partly in the margin of a book and are relatively common in text books, manuals of instruction, guide books and such like. They should be regarded in conjunction with contents lists, indexes and headlines as the total apparatus for guiding the reader through the book.
- (j) *Footnotes* Generally speaking these consist of material which the author regards as essential to the complete

understanding of the text but which he does not wish – for a variety of reasons – to embody in the text of the book itself. They may be textual, embodying the information itself or they may be references. It is material which is often found at the foot of a page below the text, but there is perfectly sound sense on occasions in gathering this kind of information at the end of a chapter or at the end of the whole work. Once again the most useful arrangement will depend partly upon the subject matter and the level of the reader to whom the book is addressed but still more upon the personal predilections of the reader. It is, therefore, quite impracticable and undesirable to attempt to lay down any standards.

- (k) *Addenda or Errata Slips* These consist of tipped-in slips of paper making additions or corrections to the text. In the ideal book they should not exist at all, but, in the event of amendments of any kind being known to be necessary before the book is issued it is better that they should be inserted rather than that the book should appear with any inaccuracies.

Once the student has mastered the general purpose of each of these items, the most important thing for him to do is to find several examples for himself. It is not enough simply to locate, to list and to lose them among his notes, he should make some personal assessment as to the necessity and efficiency of them. In no single instance should the features appear merely because it is general practice to include them. They should be there because they make a real contribution to the efficiency of the finished product. A book is designed to be read and used; all its parts should contribute to that end.

## 2. *Stages in production of a book*

In spite of the variations which will exist between different kinds of book, there is a certain broad pattern visible in the stages which go towards producing the final result. Generally speaking they are as follows:

- (a) *Preparation of the typescript* This is the initial step and the typescript will have to be prepared in accordance with the requirements of the publisher or printer. Publishers' and printers' house styles will usually dictate, frequently within quite narrow limits, the exact form which the typescript must take.
- (b) *Castings-off* This process is the means by which the publisher will calculate how much print the typescript will make when set, and therefore estimate, in conjunction with other factors, what the total cost of the production will be.
- (c) *Type-setting* The type will now be set up from the typescript and placed ready for the first printing.
- (d) *Galley-proof* This is the proof taken from the initial setting-up of type. It is usually produced in long sheets which contain two to three pages of the finished production. It will be read in the printing office for obvious errors and a copy will also go to the author for correction. Corrections are now usually made in accordance with British Standard Institution Specification Number B.S. 1219:1945.
- (e) *Page make-up* When the errors have been corrected in the type, it will be made up into type pages each containing the correct number of lines to the page, equipped with any headlines, footnotes, page numbers

etc. which may be necessary. During this stage page proofs will also be prepared for final proofing and checking.

- (f) *Imposition and printing* The corrected and prepared type pages will now be imposed in the arrangement required for this particular book and the unit of printing, the forme, is prepared. From these formes the sheets will be printed.
- (g) *Illustrations* While the above has been proceeding any necessary illustrations will have been commissioned and proofed, so that the finally agreed version of them may be printed.
- (h) *Binding or casing* The text and the illustrations can now be brought together and the whole of the book is ready for the final stage of binding or casing. The book is now a complete and finished unit and is, to all intents and purposes, ready for issue.
- (i) *Dust-jackets* Just the final stage in the manufacture of many modern products is to give them some form of attractive packaging in order to increase their market potential, so something similar happens to the book. The dust-jacket, which was originally a simple piece of paper wrapped around the book in order to protect it from the dust, is now an item on which considerable money is expended. It is frequently lavish in appearance and an important part of the book as it now appears on the market.

### 3. *Physical components of a book*

The third area of interest and concern is that of the component physical elements in the book. Just as the

human body can be regarded as a collection of chemicals with, as we are told, a very low monetary valuation, so can a book be regarded as a conglomeration of paper, ink, illustrations, binding, etc. These have their own particular functions within the book as a whole and each also has its own especial considerations and problems from the librarian's point of view.

### *Paper*

Throughout the whole history of the printed book paper has been the main basic material. Methods of manufacture have changed and the materials have changed also; but a mid-20th-century paper is easily recognizable as being substantially the same product as a mid-15th-century one. The librarian is concerned with paper at two main points; at neither of which does he really have any effective control over the product.

He is concerned with certain physical attributes of paper because he needs to regard the book as a tool of which he has to make as effective and economic a use as possible. Matters of colouring of paper, surface texture, weight, glossiness and so on can affect the kind of use which he can expect to be made of a book. A librarian of a patient's library in a hospital is acutely aware of the fact that the weight of a book, very largely dependent upon the paper, can militate against a book's use by a bed-fast patient. Every librarian is conscious of the limitations of a book printed on a glossy paper which reflects accurately all the surroundings, including the reader, but defies normal ease of reading. In general, however, these are the problems of the publisher and the more responsible ones are aware of these problems and formulate their policies accordingly.

The librarian, by and large, has to accept the standards which are in current vogue and then utilize his stock in the best possible way according to the demands of his particular service.

His bigger problem is one of durability. This is a relatively modern problem; not becoming acute until the latter half of the 19th century. Two considerations then arose which reacted together to bring about a state of affairs which is now becoming critical. Until 1800 virtually all paper was hand-made and manufactured from rags. With paper of this quality and with the comparatively unpolluted atmosphere of that non-industrial age, no serious problems of decay from either intrinsic or extrinsic causes arose. In the second half of the 19th century new materials such as the wood-pulps and esparto grass, became increasingly common and these were of inferior quality, although in most instances perfectly adequate for the work for which they were primarily designed. The problem of the librarian is that he is often called upon to preserve material beyond the length of life which the producers intended. To suggest that a greater percentage of material should be printed on papers of great durability would be to place an impossible economic burden upon the book trade.

Paper can decay for two main reasons. Either because it carries the seeds of its own destruction within it; which is true of many inferior papers such as the mechanical wood papers or because it can be attacked by deleterious elements in the atmosphere. Both these factors were greatly on the increase during the last hundred years and, in spite of modern movements towards cleaner air, every librarian knows that he has to face an increasing problem of air pollution which, if unchecked, can destroy his stock.

Some remedies for this latter condition lie outside the immediate range of paper problems. If, for instance, the atmosphere is causing this disintegration then the exclusion of impurities in the air from the library is obviously a step in the right direction. A fully air-conditioned library would have this among its other benefits, but it still seems extremely unlikely that we shall have any considerable number of such libraries in this country within the foreseeable future.

Much research has been conducted in recent years on this whole question of the reasons for the decay of paper and what steps the librarian can take in order to prevent it. This is by far the biggest problem facing the library profession in this particular area and a student should give considerable thought to its problems.

For the general account of the manufacture of both hand and machine made paper, a student should consult the appropriate chapters of Sean Jennett's *Making of books*. For the problems of deterioration and preservation of papers he should consult the Library Association's *Durability of Paper* Report in order to see the problem from the librarian's standpoint. His wish, after all, is to have paper on the market in which these problems will never arise. From the more practical viewpoint of the treatment of papers of all kinds he should make certain of reading the reports initiated by W. J. Barrow.

### *Type*

The librarian's need for a knowledge of type and experience in the use of type is even more debatable than his knowledge of technical processes in other fields of book production. The aesthetic appreciation of type design is a



matter which is of no professional concern to him at all, unless or until he is called upon to mount an exhibition of good book design. In this latter event he will be advised in 99 cases out of a hundred to secure the easy co-operation of a local School of Printing or some similar assistance from within the trade. It is a highly complex and technical matter and one on which the librarian, whatever views he may hold as an individual, has very little right to be dogmatic from a professional standpoint.

A larger problem is that of clarity. All type is designed with the avowed objective of being capable of being read and a librarian is concerned with the ease with which his stock can be used by his readers. He cannot hope, however, to be able to direct any very considerable influence on publishers nor can the standards of typographical clarity play anything but a marginal role in his selection of material from the published output. It may, however, affect the use of his stock for particular purposes. An example of this is in the famous book list issued by the American Library Association, *Books for tired eyes*. Here the particular circumstances of the book's physical properties, in this instance its clarity, was the cardinal point of selection for the list. This is one instance in which some appreciation of the problems of type could be of direct value to the librarian in his work. Such examples must necessarily be few and far between. It is important to realize that clarity will, in any event, depend upon a whole group of factors of which the type is but one, although probably the most individually important. Apart from type itself, the relationship between the type and paper both for surface texture and for colouring, the quality of inking and impression and the setting of the type, — all these play major roles in making a book of the necessary quality.



So far as type itself is concerned the size of the type face is a matter of basic concern, accepting a general principle that type of less than 12 point size can frequently make extended reading somewhat difficult. This in turn raises the question that type designs vary from each other considerably even within the same type size, the chief difference being one of x height; that is, the actual size of the type letter itself on the head of the piece of type. Because of this 12 point Times Roman appears on the printed page as very much larger than 12 point Bembo. Type designs will also vary considerably in the width or 'set' of the individual letters and because of this a given piece of text set in Baskerville will occupy considerably more linear space than the same text set in the same size of Perpetua type. These are the main differences between type designs other than those involving aesthetic considerations, and are of basic importance before questions of difference in letter designs and shapes begin to be of any concern. It is not a question that, among the well-known and leading type designs there are good ones and bad ones but simply that some are more suited to a particular purpose than others. A librarian may, on occasions, be called upon to make a selection of printed material for a particular purpose when some aspects of typography may be a partially deciding factor. We should not, however, over-emphasize this because, in the final resort, it is the text which is of paramount importance.

Many librarians also feel that a basic knowledge of typography is necessary to them because of the printed material which they will themselves initiate from their libraries. It cannot be denied that something needs to be done to effect a major revolution in this direction. Libraries of all kinds will be publishing an increasing amount of material in the years ahead and some part at least of the

image of a library, and of the profession in general, will be formed by the general standard of our publicity (in the widest sense) material. It must also be admitted that, at present, the general standard of library printing is appallingly low. No one would wish to suggest that every single piece of information issued must be printed; there is ample room for duplicated sheets in a number of directions. But in these days of modern office reproduction equipment there is no necessity at all for the hastily produced, smudgily presented copy which can still be found issuing from many of our libraries. At a higher level, libraries are currently responsible for a considerable bulk of printed material, much of which is intended to attract and open up fresh vistas of a library's services to its readers. The vast majority of this is shabby in the extreme. At the Loughborough School of Librarianship we have amassed a collection of library publicity material over the past 17 years and – from the viewpoint of its presentation – it is a perfect Chamber of Horrors. Taking one example, compliment slips; a small area of publicity material with no function other than that of creating a pleasant personal link in a civilized and sophisticated fashion, yet many of those now in use are as unattractive as a Victorian butcher's bill-head. Is this standard likely to be improved, as some librarians believe, if we as a profession become more knowledgeable about type?

Certainly the knowledge could be of some service if it were soundly based. Typography is not, however, a study which can be mastered in a short time nor, once mastered, allowed to vegetate. Consequently few librarians can hope to be able to acquire and maintain their typographical knowledge at a level which will be of any really practical use to them. What they can do, and what we as a pro-

fession should regard as our normal limitation in this area, is to have sufficient knowledge of type and its possibilities so as to be able to discuss our requirements seriously with a printer and, in return, be able to understand his suggestions. If a library needs good printing, it needs to find a good printer who can become interested in the projects and, for the most part, leave it to him. Amateur activity is far too expensive in these days to be allowed to continue.

What the student needs to be able to do, therefore, is to realize the kinds of differences which can exist between type faces and, by studying examples of their uses in books, attempt to appreciate the uses made of them by reputable printers and publishers.

The ideal introduction is provided by Oliver Simon's *Introduction to typography* and the relevant chapters in Sean Jennett's *Making of books*. Of all the many collections of type specimens which are available the most useful is the *Western book of typefaces* in which the same text, printed in a wide variety of typefaces and in a number of settings within the type face, demonstrates perfectly the range of effects which can be achieved.

### *Composition and Printing*

Following the preceding argument a shade further, the field of composition methods and modern printing techniques is the one in which the librarian has the least direct contact and responsibility of all, although he is vitally affected by the results. Nevertheless, it is extremely difficult to see in what particular respects a librarian benefits as a librarian by having any real knowledge of these techniques.

The most direct area of his responsibility is to understand sufficient of the processes of printing, and above all of reprinting, to appreciate the significance in both bibliographical and publishing terms of expressions such as edition, issue, impression, reprint and so on. Since the relevance of these terms spring from particular methods of composing and printing, the general principles of these need to be understood. Hand composition and, most certainly, hand printing are now of such extremely limited significance in modern book production that in the context of the present syllabus they may be ignored.

Of greatest importance are the machine composition methods, especially Monotype and Linotype, which have been of prime importance throughout the whole of this present century. The appropriate chapters in Jennett will give as much detail as is needed for an understanding of the processes and to this must, of necessity, be added a visit to a printing works in order to see the machines in operation. For several years to come the catalogue of the International Printing Exhibition held in London in the Summer of 1963 will be of considerable value in sketching the development of the main machines.

The more modern development in this field is that of photo-composition which, if it becomes more widespread, could have marked repercussions on the printing trade and on the whole of the world of books. The implications of this must not be overlooked, although in this country so far it has not had as wide an effect as might have been anticipated. In the United States in particular, it has already become the most widely used method for general book production.

The other technique which will be of concern is that of

plate-making, either by stereoplating or electroplating. Once the basic principles of all these have been digested it will be possible to see how the terminology of printing is affected by them.

Bibliographically speaking an *edition* consists of all those copies of a work which have been printed from one setting up of type. If, therefore, to take this definition to the limits of absurdity, the type was broken down and then reset with every individual piece of type occupying exactly the same position as previously, this new printing must be regarded as a new edition. This differentiation between editions may appear to be irrelevant but the important factor is that the *possibility* of change in the text exists and therefore allowance must be made for it.

In the eyes of the publishers and librarians, however, it is the *fact* rather than the *possibility* of change or amendment to the text which is important and, by agreement, the term 'new edition' or anything which suggests the same, should only be used when there has been a substantial amount of new material or corrected material or rearrangement involved. In either case, sufficient knowledge of the outlines of the printing methods will be necessary in order to appreciate the problems involved in understanding the application of either definition to particular groups of books. For example, does a re-setting of type cast from an original Monotype roll constitute a new edition bibliographically, or not? It is a different setting, in that fresh pieces of metal will be used, but they are new pieces set in a pre-determined manner without possibility of change. Or, at least, the possibility could arise only by accident. What then, if one printing of a work is from type set from a Monotype spool in Monotype Baskerville and another printing from the same spool in Monotype Centaur, is the

relationship between these copies? Basically it can be argued that they are from the same setting up of type, consequently of the same edition; yet, in actual fact, they will appear to be very different entities. There is no wish to suggest that problems such as this are incapable or even particularly difficult of solution. The point which it is necessary to make at this stage is that modern methods of printing raise difficulties which were unknown to the majority of the scholars who created bibliography in its present form. Film setting will bring further problems of the same kind, and as methods change and develop the situation will become even more confusing.

But if we argue that this is of small concern to the majority of librarians, and this may well be so, modern methods present him with equal problems. Stereotyping and electrotyping were originally introduced with the idea of finding a method of providing regular reprints of unchanging texts. In other words they served, in the 19th and early 20th centuries, the same purposes as the block book had done in the 15th century. As modern methods of printing advanced, as high speed presses began to roll off increasing quantities of material, their function also tended to change. It became economic to use stereotypes and electros for texts which were liable to change over a period of time and this entailed a revised plate with certain areas cut out and a new text inserted. When this began to be done on a really large scale, as in regular revisions of major encyclopaedias, the position began to assume very confusing proportions. When a small part of the text is revised on a regular basis over a period of time it becomes extremely difficult to decide at what particular stage a new edition has been created. Up to the point when a very small percentage only of the total text has been revised many

librarians would wish to be informed as to the amount of revision before making decisions as to purchase.

Another matter of bibliographical concern, although it scarcely creates a problem, arises over the term *impression*. This is normally taken to mean all those copies within an edition which are printed at any one time. There may frequently be several impressions within an edition and, in certain instances, they may include revised impressions or, more likely, *corrected* impressions since widescale revision would probably constitute a new edition. This usage is therefore capable of providing any purchaser, librarian or otherwise, with interesting and possibly useful information about the sequence of printings. It is a matter of extremely limited value unless it is in some way associated with information about the size of the impression. The well-nigh meaningless advertising propaganda of 'six large impressions before publication' conveys little unless the proven integrity of the publisher provides a guarantee that each 'large impression' did not, in fact, consist of 50 copies! Similarly the statement of editions and impressions when provided on the verso of the title-leaf rings forth with far greater honesty if the size of editions and impressions is also given.

Consequently the requirement of the librarian within this area of composition and printing is to understand sufficient about the processes of manufacture to be able to judge something about the background history of any particular publication. He is not, and never can be, called upon to understand the processes from the same viewpoint as a printer or a publisher. It is not only unnecessary, but can also be a positive danger, if he comes to be persuaded that his essentially amateur approach is in any respect similar to that of the professional.



*Illustrations*

This is an area in which some basic knowledge of the main principles behind the illustration processes can be of very real assistance to a librarian – although not necessarily to every librarian. It is not sufficient for the student to commit to memory the main steps in the production of each main illustration process. He needs to be able to view the methods of illustration from the standpoint of what they can best accomplish and how the complexity of the method may affect the accuracy of the result, and, almost incidentally, the price of the finished article.

The most important divisions of the processes are, therefore, whether a particular process is hand or machine produced, and machine will almost certainly mean 'photo-mechanical'; line or tone; *and* either relief, intaglio or planograph.

Machine processes of illustration came slowly but steadily in to the ascendancy throughout the last 40 years of the 19th century, and now are responsible for practically the whole bulk of normal book illustration work. The majority of the hand processes could not possibly be used to produce a sufficient number of prints of the necessary quality for modern commercial book production. Nor indeed would it normally be *necessary* to utilize them when the photo-mechanical methods can produce results of such high fidelity and of such pleasing aesthetic quality. The advantage of a hand process is largely in the ability of the artist to work directly in his medium without over much interpretation intervening between him and the finally published result. He can now only normally reckon to be able to use any of the hand processes provided he either accepts the limitation of the number of copies or else that



he accepts an intervening medium. In the first instance this would mean virtually limiting his work to fine printing. To take an extreme case an artist who wished to use dry-point as a medium would be obliged to limit his printings from a single dry point plate to a figure well below 50 copies. Some critics would indeed prefer to limit it to no more than six copies. In either event it would impose a restriction which made use of the medium impossible in normal commercial publishing. Alternatively he could pull a single perfect print from his plate and then have this print reproduced by any of the appropriate mechanical methods. What the reader would see would not, of course, be a dry point but a dry point print reproduced by, for example, lithography, photogravure or collogtype. The situation is similar to viewing a painting behind glass. If the glass is good and free from distortion, then the painting can be seen with a high degree of accuracy. Similarly, all the essential qualities of a dry point could and would show through any of the accurate modern methods.

Much modern book illustration, outside the freely interpreted areas of imaginative literature, is initially from photographs and it is therefore to be expected that photographic methods should be used at the final printing stage. Consequently there is little doubt on any of the above counts that the photo-mechanical methods are of paramount importance at the present day. Therefore while the hand processes should be studied to see what light the underlying principles can shed on book illustration as a whole, it is half-tone, line-block, photogravure, photolithography and collotype which need to be viewed in the greatest detail.

The second major consideration is whether the process

is of line or tone. The concepts of line in an illustration is perfectly simple, but that of tone is more difficult. The word is used in such a wide variety of ways that its actual application to the printing of illustrations is not always clear. Basically it means that the actual amount of weight of ink on any given area of the illustration can be varied according to the demands of the illustration itself. This can most easily be seen by comparing photogravure with half-tone. In the case of photogravure the plate from which printing is done consists of pits of varying depth but of equal surface area over the whole of the plate. In printing, therefore, differing amounts of ink can reach surface areas of the paper whose size is dictated by the constant and regular area of the pits. This is the physical process which produces the true tonality. In contrast to this a half-tone method which can give some appearance of tone to the finished print, is governed by the fact that each dot over the whole of the plate will have an even spreading of ink. The variations in print will not be of the weight of ink on a given surface area but rather on the total area covered in any part of the print by the varying sized dots. The general effect is of a semblance of tone, but without actual tonality.

Each process needs to be analysed in this manner and also the extent to which the process achieves continuous tone. This aspect of the work can be approached in the following manner. In the original which is to be reproduced, whether it be a living landscape or an oil painting, the eye receives an impression from every minute part of the original. Any illustration process which sets out to reproduce that original must therefore be judged on two counts; one, whether the process achieves or can achieve true tone and, two, whether every part of the paper of the

reproduction reproduces a corresponding part of the original or whether any areas of the paper are left blank and unprinted. The nearer the print can approach to having no blank areas the greater is its continuity of tone and, therefore, other things being equal, the greater can be its fidelity to the original.

Photogravure again can provide a useful example of this kind of analysis. On the first count, it is a true tone process. On the second count, because the pits in the plate are separated from each other, it cannot be a process of continuous tone. On the other hand because a photogravure plate will consist of 75,000 to 100,000 dots to the square inch the intervening areas must be very small. Also, a photogravure plate is printed using a very volatile ink and in a manner which virtually flings the ink out of the pits onto the paper, thus there is a tendency for the ink from one pit to mingle with the ink from adjoining pits and so create an almost continuous print. Each of these processes should be analysed to consider this question of tone and continuous tone, and examples of each of the processes should be viewed under a good magnifying glass.

The last important area of analysis is concerned with the method of printing the plate. A *relief* process is one in which the design prints because it is the only area to take ink, the background having been cut or etched away. An *intaglio* process is when the design is sunken, either mechanically or chemically into the plate, and, after the lines of the design have been filled with ink and the surface wiped clean, the plate is printed under pressure. The paper is thereby forced into the sunken lines and picks up the ink, while the background, in touch with the wiped surface, remains unprinted. In *planograph* processes the design is neither raised nor sunken, but printing and non-printing

areas are on the same plane. The difference between the two areas is created by having some areas which will attract ink and others which will repel ink. There is a variety of ways in which this can be achieved, but the simplest of all is the basic lithographic principle of the antipathy between grease and water.

An examination of an illustrative medium based on these main qualities of the processes will provide most of the evidence as to the suitability of any particular process for a given function. To it must be added the frequently overriding consideration of economics. Wood engravings have frequently been reproduced in modern book production by line block. This is not a process in which any very high standard of fidelity can be achieved but it will enable the reproduction to be marketed at a reasonable cost. The job would be much more accurately done by collotype but the cost of the resultant article would be measured in guineas rather than shillings. A loss of absolute fidelity can therefore often be accepted if it results in a more reasonably priced article. Similarly an oil painting can be well produced by either first-class photogravure or photolithography, but a book so illustrated may be priced at several guineas or, indeed, an individual print by colour collotype can itself cost several guineas. But equally, some form of reproduction of the same painting can be made by colour half-tone and marketed by our art galleries at a few pence. The question now is not so much that one process can reproduce a given thing and one cannot, but rather a consideration of the varying qualities of the illustrations and their costs. In these considerations the ability of the process to reproduce colour well is a major factor.

Illustrations are frequently of vital importance in book production, but in addition to that, these processes, once

regarded almost exclusively as 'illustration' processes, are now becoming increasingly used for the reproduction or reprinting of purely textual matter. Whichever it may be, however, the librarian is chiefly concerned with an outline of the processes in order to be able to judge with what fidelity and at how reasonable a cost they are capable of projecting the quality of the original.

### *Binding*

This is a feature of the book in which the librarian has a very direct concern – largely from the economic standpoint. Except in those instances when a librarian is prepared to accept the fact that any particular volume is of ephemeral interest only, without any need for preservation, then he must be concerned with the length of life which he can achieve for a given amount of money.

Some of the forms in which books, pamphlets and such like are issued have an obvious short term expectation and need very little further consideration. Any form of stapling has the seeds of complete disintegration inherent in its own make-up and drastic steps would be necessary to counteract them.

The main contenders for serious consideration so far as methods are concerned are the ordinary sewn book, whether subsequently bound or cased, and the unsewn or erstwhile named 'perfectly bound' book. Covering materials open up separate problems. A sewn book achieves a unity within itself which can make for durability provided that the materials are good and that the methods used are sufficiently above reproach. If deficient in either of these respects the book can sink to a regrettably low level of performance, but there seems no present reason to suggest

that the fault lies in the general principles of the method.

The supporters of the unsewn methods frequently make the same claims; namely that there is nothing wrong with the process, even though occasionally it may produce some slipshod results. It certainly has to be admitted that all the initial laboratory tests indicated considerable strength in every important respect; yet, somehow, conviction does not come easily. A personal observation would be that if the process is sound, only marred by possible faults in execution, then the percentage failure rate in this respect seems to be higher than for the sewn book. If the problem is to secure single leaves, which have no fold for the sewing, then unsewn methods probably provide the answer. In other instances, however, the advantages of unsewn binding are so dubious as to make it an unreasonable method if a secure and lasting product is required. It may well be, however, in these days of complicated book trade economics that the publishers have no wish to provide a book which can be passed on from generation to generation. If we expect no more than an ephemeral pleasure from a theatre ticket costing a guinea, why should we expect a lifetime of use from a paper-back costing 3/6d? We buy motor-cars, washing machines, television sets in the certain knowledge that in a comparatively short time they will be worn-out or old fashioned and will need replacement. Consequently, if an unsewn binding cannot promise us years of life, it may not be due to a 'fault' of the publisher; it may be deliberate policy. The problem for the librarian is rooted in the strange fact that his profession is called upon, to some extent, to use and to preserve for posterity articles which their manufacturers did not design for a long life.

So far as covering materials are concerned, strength and

durability are the chief requirements. For real strength a good leather has few rivals, but this quality is completely dependent upon its being kept in conditions which will maintain it. If it is stored in conditions which are not nearly ideal then deterioration can be rapid. It is vitally important for a student to realize exactly what problems arise in storing leather bound books and what care and maintenance would be necessary in order to keep them in good condition. To have books bound in leather and then not to take the necessary steps for their preservation is wasteful in the extreme.

There is now a wide range of covering materials available which are of interest to the librarian. What he requires is a material which combines a high measure of durability under conditions other than the ideal, and which requires a minimum of maintenance. Associated problems in particular cases may be those of weight or sheer bulkiness on the shelves. In certain instances the possibility of a material which is capable of being kept in clean condition is of major importance, hence the profession's concern with all the several forms of plasticized coverings.

The important factor for the student to keep in mind during this part of his studies is that only those aspects of production which affect the efficient use of the finished article are really of concern to him. He must also be prepared to adopt a somewhat more liberal attitude to this than has been suggested by the syllabus of the Library Association, either in the past or at the present day. It is obviously an anachronism to suggest that a librarian today is necessarily primarily concerned with book material; vast and important newer media of communications are now claiming his attention. If in the past some knowledge of the



technical aspects of book production have been of importance to the librarian then it can hardly be denied that he is equally concerned with the techniques of manufacture of gramophone records, film materials, and the like. Certainly his effective use of these media will call for some knowledge of their nature and the difficulties and limitations of their use. This statement is not so much a call for a vastly increased knowledge of the techniques of manufacture of these materials throughout the profession, but rather we should realize that our knowledge of the book arts needs to be kept within reasonable limits.

One physical form does, however, deserve special mention. As has been apparent throughout the whole of this book a great number of limitations can and do affect the whole programme of bibliographical control. Limitations of number of available copies, problems of out of print or unavailable works, problems of unpublished works such as theses, problems created by the very mass of the books themselves and their annual increase, problems of the physical storage of such quantities of material and the recent awareness of the problems of disintegration and decay.

Since photography appeared on the scene the situation has changed radically. Photography itself meant that uniqueness of copy was no longer a barrier to a wider use of the material and it frequently meant also that imperfections in copies could be remedied. Gradually, it also came to mean that material which, while not necessarily unique or even of considerable rarity, presented special problems in usage could be made more readily usable by photography. Material which was in poor physical condition, writing or inscriptions which were of a low order of clarity, could be photographed, if necessary under



special conditions of lighting, and be remarkably advanced in clarity of usage. This was especially so in the case of the material printed on some of the decaying and discoloured papers of the last decade of the 19th century and the early decades of the present century. Newspapers were naturally particularly susceptible to this kind of treatment. Photographic copies and photographic reprints have, chiefly during this present century, become more and more a part of the everyday world of the librarian. Many of the processes involved were expensive and slow and one of the virtues to the librarian of many of the newer forms of the so-called 'documentary reproduction' methods has been their ability to cut down on both costs and time. As all these have progressed they have produced solutions to a number of problems but one of the biggest of all still persisted.

Some of the large libraries of the world have already had to face the problems of the enormous bulk of the collections which tended to vitiate many of the library profession's modern attempts to speed up and revitalize its services to readers. Eighty miles of shelving in the library of the British Museum is evidence of a considerable collection but it hardly makes for ease of access, no matter how the library is designed. At the present rate of output of the world's publishing houses the problem is growing more acute each year. As a general rule libraries need to be situated in easily accessible and, consequently, populous areas, where land prices and building costs are high. Maintenance costs on buildings are likewise advancing each year. Yet within these progressively more expensive establishments an increasing proportion of the space had to be devoted purely to storage and a lessening amount to the readers' usage of the material.

Microphotography produced one answer to this problem and demonstrated how the holdings of a library could be made to shrink while retaining virtually all the good qualities of the original plus some additional advantages of its own. In whatever form it appeared, therefore, as microfilm, microcard or microfiche, the method had all the advantages of photography allied to the advantages of its miniature form.

The only possible overall disadvantage to the method is the fact that the material requires a piece of apparatus in order to make it serve its purpose and this places some limitation upon it. We must, however, look further than this to account for the limited usage currently made of this kind of material in this country. Cost is one factor frequently urged against it, yet compared with other methods it is far from alarming. However expensive, for example, the microfilm version of *The Times* might seem to be, it is not high compared with the cost of the original, the cost of binding the original, the cost of storage room and maintenance and the fact that, over certain periods, the original is not a really satisfactory instrument. Some of the opposition to microforms is rooted in illogical antipathy to any change and the consequent difficulties in using the materials on the part of some readers. A librarian can, however, no longer afford to neglect this area, partly because of the status of the material which has been published in microform. Long and expensive back runs of periodicals and proceedings of learned societies, rare books which are of importance in the wide and general knowledge of a subject. Now to such examples must be added the increasing proportion of works which are achieving original publication in microform each year and which are not, therefore, simple reprints.

Again, the importance lies not primarily in the methods of production, or even the quality of the image always provided that reasonable legibility is obtained, but rather in the effect which this form of production will have upon the material, both qualitatively and quantitatively, which the librarian will have to offer to his readers.



## Reading List

As is stated in the Foreword, the majority of the books which a student needs to see and study are listed in the main text of the book. The following, therefore, is simply a listing of those which are fundamental to the study of the subject or of which details, full enough for the easy identification of the book, are not given elsewhere.

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION and VIRGINIA STATE LIBRARY *Permanent/Durable Book paper; summary of a conference*. Virginia State Library. 1960.

BARROW, W. J. *Deterioration of book stock, causes and remedies*. Virginia State Library. 1959.

BARROW, W. J. *The manufacture and testing of durable book papers*. Virginia State Library. 1960.

BARROW, W. J. *Permanence/Durability of the book. A two-year research program*. W. J. Barrow Research Laboratory. 1963.

BURKETT, J. and MORGAN, T. S. *Special materials in the library*. Library Association. 1963.

INTERNATIONAL PRINTING MACHINERY AND ALLIED TRADES EXHIBITION *Printing and the mind of man*. Catalogue of the exhibitions at the British Museum and at Earls Court, London. 16-27 July 1963.

JENNETT, Sean. *The making of books*. Faber and Faber. 3rd edition. 1964.

OLLE, J. G. *An Introduction to British government publications*. A.A.L. 1965.

PLENDERLEITH, H. J. *The preservation of leather bookbindings*. The British Museum. 1946.

POLLARD, A. W. *The arrangement of bibliographies*. A.A.L. Reprint. 1950.

SHERA, J. H. and EGAN, M. E. editors. *Bibliographic organization*. University of Chicago Press. 1951.

SIMON, Oliver *Introduction to typography*. Faber and Faber. 2nd edition. 1963. (Penguin edition 1954).

TOASE C. A. ed. *Guide to current British periodicals*. Library Association. 1962.

U.N.E.S.C.O./LIBRARY OF CONGRESS BIBLIOGRAPHICAL SURVEY *Bibliographical services, their present state and possibilities*. Washington. 1950.

WALFORD, A. J. *Guide to reference material*. Library Association. 1959. *And supplement*.

WESTERN TYPE BOOK *Analysed specimens of Monotype, Linotype and Intertype faces*. Hamish Hamilton. 1960.

WILLIAMS, E. E. *Farmington Plan handbook*. Association of Research Libraries. Revised edition 1961.

WINCHELL, C. M. *Guide to reference books*. American Library Association. 7th edition. 1951. *and supplements*.

# Index

	<i>page</i>
Atlases . . . . .	79
Bibliographies, bibliographies of . . . . .	17
Bibliographies, national . . . . .	29
Bibliographies, universal . . . . .	20
Binding . . . . .	115
Book trade catalogues . . . . .	27
Catalogues, printed . . . . .	23
Composition . . . . .	105
Dictionaries . . . . .	65
Directories . . . . .	77
Encyclopaedias . . . . .	69
Government publications . . . . .	87
Illustrations . . . . .	110
International organizations . . . . .	39
Maps . . . . .	79
Microphotography . . . . .	120
National bibliographical centres . . . . .	40
National bibliographies . . . . .	29
National libraries . . . . .	41
Paper . . . . .	99
Parts of a book . . . . .	91
Periodicals . . . . .	80
Photography . . . . .	118
Printed catalogues . . . . .	23
Printing . . . . .	105
Regional schemes . . . . .	42
Type . . . . .	101
Universal bibliographies . . . . .	20
Year books . . . . .	75



CATALOGUED.



*"A book that is shut is but a block"*

**CENTRAL ARCHAEOLOGICAL LIBRARY**

GOVT. OF INDIA  
Department of Archaeology  
**NEW DELHI.**

Please help us to keep the book  
clean and moving.